DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 200 165 HE 013 656

AUTHOR Jadot, Jean
TITLE Survey of the State-of-the-Art and Likely Future Trends of University Management in Europe: General Report.
INSTITUTION Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Paris (France). Centre for Educational Research and Innovation.
PUB DATE 80
NOTE 67p.; For related documents, see HE 013 538-539 and HE 013 655. All four documents available as a set only from OECD. Individual reports available from EDRS in microfiche only.
AVAILABLE FROM IMHE Programme, OECD/CERI, 2, rue Andre Pascal, 75775 Paris CEDEX 16, France ($30.00 complete set of 4).

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Administrative Change; *Administrative Organization; Administrator Attitudes; Administrator Evaluation; Administrator Responsibility; *College Administration; *Comparative Education; *Foreign Countries; Futures (of Society); Governance; Higher Education; *Institutional Characteristics; Organizational Development
IDENTIFIERS *Europe (West)

ABSTRACT

A survey, undertaken to study the present status and likely future trends of university management in Europe, grew out of past research that showed such management was in need of change. Four objectives were identified: (1) to study recent developments in European university management; (2) to compare these developments with North American experiences; (3) to provide a basis for discussion and further national or international studies; and (4) to assist the Institutional Management in Higher Education Program in drawing up a plan of action for the future. The survey was implemented through a collection of statistical data and personal opinions on university management and an assessment of that data. The report was divided into five sections--one section for each of three areas of Europe studied, one on North America, and one more general section. A total of 52 institutions were visited. The information gathered for each institution included basic facts on the institution, the organizational system, the decision-making system, the administrative system, opinions and recent improvements in management development. Descriptive data are contained in detailed comparative tables in each area studied, and the opinions are classified by topic. This general report attempts to define the main thrust of these comments and give them a logical pattern.
(Author/PJM)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED200165

PROGRAMME ON INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

SURVEY OF THE STATE-OF-THE-ART AND LIKELY FUTURE TRENDS OF UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN EUROPE

GENERAL REPORT

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

OECD

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

HE 013 656

CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION (CERI)

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

PROGRAMME ON INSTITUTIONAL MANAGEMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

SURVEY OF THE STATE-OF-THE-ART AND LIKELY FUTURE TRENDS OF UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN EUROPE

GENERAL REPORT

by
Jean JADOT
Université Catholique de Louvain

This text is based upon the detailed reports on the survey prepared by Messrs. G. LOCKWOOD and E. PROSSER (The University of Sussex), I. BENDER and W. HENNING (Universität Trier), S. BLOOMFIELD (Oregon State University) and J. JADOT.

CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
(CERI)

ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Or. Fr. Pages
1.	OVERVIEW OF THE SURVEY	1
1.1	Background	1
1.2	The Steering Group. Institutions visited. Persons interviewed	2
1.3	The recording instrument	4
1.4	Fieldwork	5
2.	INTRODUCTION TO THE GENERAL REPORT	7
3.	RECENT DEVELOPMENTS AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES	9
3.1	Changes in functions	9
3.2	The levelling-off of resources	14
3.3	Technological advances	17
3.4	Relations with the public authorities	20
3.5	Staff and student participation in decision-making	27
3.6	Complexity and cohesion	31
4.	LINES OF ACTION	35
4.1	Priority to the basic units	35
4.2	Personality	37
4.3	Internal structures of the institutions	40
4.4	The University - A system of human interaction	44
4.5	Accountability	47
4.6	Management techniques	48
4.7	Administrative services	51
5.	RECOMMENDATIONS	54
Annex 1		59
Annex 2		61

3331

Trad. No. 5933

1. OVERVIEW OF THE SURVEY

1.1 BACKGROUND

(a) In April 1969, the OECD organised a Conference on "University Planning and Management Techniques". After discussing the main problems confronting university institutions at that time, the Conference concluded that these could not be resolved without changes in the style of university management.

Ten years later, the Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE), set up as a result of this Conference, decided to find out to what extent such changes had occurred, what their nature had been and what the subsequent medium-term prospects were. Accordingly, the present survey on the state-of-the-art and likely future trends of university management in Europe was launched with the financial support of the Ford Foundation and the Volkswagen Foundation.

(b) The objectives of the survey were as follows:

- to study recent developments in university management in a sample of European universities;
- to compare these developments with North American experience;
- to provide thereby a basis for discussion and for subsequent national or international comparative studies;
- to assist the IMHE Programme in drawing up its plan of action for future years.

In practice, these objectives were implemented in three ways:

- by a descriptive approach, designed to supply facts which would help to provide a better basic knowledge of current management practices in European universities;
- by collecting the opinions of persons in the best position to gauge the problems and current trends;
- by making an assessment based on an analysis of the descriptive data and opinions.

(c) Since this was the first survey of its kind and its scope had to be limited by resources available, the descriptive data focused on decision-making structures and processes and on administrative systems. Opinions were gathered through answers to what were, for the most part, open questions. The analysis was, at least to some extent, geared to ten key issues which had been defined in advance:

- changes in the demand profile;
- new legal requirements and restrictions;
- the demand that universities should be more accountable to the public;
- changes in institutional autonomy;
- the size of higher education institutions;
- the effects of the recent economic recession and the consequent uncertainties;
- the increasing complexity of institutions;
- the breakup of the internal consensus and the decline in internal cohesion;

- management/employee relations;
- the pressures to increase productivity.

(d) Subdivision into three areas

It was felt to be essential that information and opinions should be collected through on-the-spot visits, in order to get as close as possible to the actual situation; however, because of the time factor, considerations of efficiency and the fact that several languages were being used, the countries surveyed were divided into three areas:

- Area A: Denmark, Ireland, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom.
- Area B: Austria, Germany and the Netherlands.
- Area C: Belgium, France, Italy and Switzerland.

The full survey report comprises five documents:

- The report on area A was prepared by Geoffrey Lockwood (Registrar and Secretary, University of Sussex) and Edward Prosser (Assistant Secretary, University of Sussex).
- The report on area B was prepared by Ignaz Bender (Head of Administration, Universität Trier) and Wolfgang Henning (Research Assistant, Universität Trier).
- The report on area C was prepared by Jean Jadot (Directeur du Service d'Etudes, Université Catholique de Louvain).
- A report on North America prepared by Stefan D. Bloomfield (Associate Director of the Office of Planning and Institutional Research, Oregon State University).
- The present general report prepared by Jean Jadot who, although he benefitted from discussions with his colleagues and their advice, takes full responsibility for it.

1.2 THE STEERING GROUP. THE INSTITUTIONS VISITED. THE PERSONS INTERVIEWED.

A Steering Group was set up and the list of its members is given in Annex 1. The members of this Group played an important part in defining the sample of institutions to be visited and arranging contacts on the spot. The Group met twice and provided valuable advice on the content of the recording instrument and the area reports.

Visits were made to 52 institutions, whom we warmly thank for their hospitality and co-operation. Although the sample was not constructed on a scientific basis, it was balanced as far as possible in terms of types of institution, their size and their geographic distribution. In Belgium, the sample was composed of independent institutions.

Annex 2 contains the full list of the institutions visited as well as the abbreviations used for them in some of the tables. The table on the following page shows the variety of the sample in terms of the size of institution and subjects taught.

INSTITUTIONS VISITEES, SELON LA TAILLE (*) ET LES DISCIPLINES ENSEIGNEES (**)

INSTITUTIONS VISITED, BY SIZE (*) AND SUBJECTS TAUGHT (**)

	TOUTES DISCIPLINES *ALL SUBJECTS*	TOUTES SAUF TECHNOLOGIE *ALL EXCEPT ENGINEERING*	TOUTES SAUF MEDECINE *ALL EXCEPT MEDICINE*	SCIENCES HUMAINES *HUMAN SCIENCES*	SC. HUMAINES ET NATURELLES *HUMAN AND NATURAL SC.*	SC. NATURELLES ET MEDECINE *NATURAL SC. AND MEDICINE*	SC. NATURELLES & TECHNOLOGIE *NATURAL SC. AND ENGINEERING*	SOCIALES, NAT. & TECHNOLOGIE *NAT. SOCIAL AND ENGINEERING*	TECHNOLOGIE SEULE *ENGINEERING ONLY*	AUTRES MONO-DISCIPLINAIRES *OTHER MONODISCIPLINARY*
TRES GRANDES INSTITUTIONS *VERY LARGE INSTITUTIONS*	Erlangen-NBG TH Aachen Napoli Roma	FU Berlin U Wien				Paris 6				
GRANDES INSTITUTIONS *LARGE INSTITUTIONS*	Edinburgh Hamburg KU Leuven UC Louvain C Milano	Uppsala Oslo Leiden Nijmegen	Karlsruhe			Toulouse 3	ETH Zürich			
INSTITUTIONS DE TAILLE MOYENNE *MEDIUM SIZE INSTITUTIONS*	Linkoping Leeds Sheffield C Saarbrucken Dijon Parma	Basel Genève	Trondheim Sussex C. London	Grenoble (soc.) Nanterre Venezia				Lille I	KIT Stockholm	Wageningen (Agric.)
PETITES INSTITUTIONS *SMALL INSTITUTIONS*	UC Cork TC Dublin	Tromsö UI Antwerpen Fribourg	NIHE Limerick Heriot-Watt	Trier AC Wien (Let.)	Roskilde UC Linz		TU Copenhagen TU Graz	Twente Trento	INP Grenoble	VU Wien (Vétér.)

(*) La taille a été appréciée selon trois critères combinés: le nombre d'étudiants, le nombre d'EPT de personnel et le montant des dépenses annuelles.

Souvent, les quatre catégories ci-dessus correspondent aux intervalles suivants: Très grandes: plus de 20 000 ét. - Grandes: 10 à 20 000 - Moyennes: 5 à 10 000 - Petites: moins de 5 000.

(*) The size results from the combined use of three criteria : student number, staff (FTE), and annual operating expenditures.

These four categories are often determined as follows: Very large: more than 20 000 st - Large: 10 to 20 000 - Medium: 5 to 10.000 - Small: fewer than 5 000.

(**) Les disciplines enseignées sont rangées en cinq catégories: lettres (y compris psychologie), sciences sociales (y compris droit), sciences naturelles (y.c. mathématiques), technologie (y.c. agriculture), et sciences médicales. "Sciences humaines" signifie: lettres et/ou sciences sociales.
Les disciplines correspondant à moins de 3% des étudiants ont été ignorées.

(**) The subjects taught are grouped in five categories: arts (including psychology) social sciences (including law), natural sciences (including mathematics), engineering (+ agriculture), and medical sciences. "Human sciences" means: arts and/or social sciences.

In addition to those people who were kind enough to agree to help in collecting information on the spot, the following persons in each institution were interviewed during the course of our survey.

		DK	IR	N	S	UK	D	NL	A	B	CH	F	I	TOT
Ci	Chef de l'Institution *Head of Institution*	2	3	3	2	5	2	4	5	3	3	5	6	43
Ca	Chef de l'Administration *Head of Administration*	2	3	3	3	6	7	4	5	3	4	6	6	52
Rf	Responsable financier *Chief Financial Officer*	-	3	2	2	5	7	4	4	1	3	5	5	41
Rb	Responsable des bâtiments *Main Building Officer*	1	2	3	1	5	-	-	-	2	4	4	4	26
Rp	Responsable de la planification *Main Planning Officer*	1	3	2	2	6	5	4	4	3	4	-	1	35
P	Représentant des professeurs *Representative of Professors*	1	2	3	3	5	7	4	3	3	3	5	6	45
A	Représentant des assistants *Representative of Lecturers*	1	2	2	3	5	7	4	3	3	4	6	4	44
AT	Représentant du personnel de service *Representative of Auxiliary Staff*	2	3	2	3	5	5	3	5	3	2	3	6	42
E	Représentant des étudiants *Student representative*	2	3	2	2	3	6	3	5	3	3	5	5	42
R2	Représentant d'entité décentralisée *Area representative*	1	1	2	1	1	-	-	-	3	1	6	5	21
	TOTAL	13	25	24	22	46	46	30	34	27	31	45	48	391
	INSTITUTIONS VISITEES *INSTITUTIONS VISITED*	2	3	3	3	6	[illegible]	4	5	3	4	7	6	53

1.3 THE RECORDING INSTRUMENT

The three Area Teams agreed upon a common basic document or "recording instrument" for the information to be collected from each institution. This document consists of six sections:

- Section 1: basic facts on the institution.
- Section 2: the organisational system (decision-making bodies).
- Section 3: the decision-making system (procedures in a few key areas).
- Section 4: the administrative system.
- Section 5: opinions (difficulties encountered, action required, etc.).
- Section 6: management development (list of recent improvements).

The area reports contain tables showing the detailed findings from this survey generally accompanied by the text of the questions asked.

The major difficulties encountered during the course of this survey concerned the terminology used (the problem of translation being an additional complication), differences in national contexts, in which one word may have very different specific meanings (in the detailed reports, a special chapter is devoted to the national contexts) and certain differences in the methods of collecting information and opinions (in particular, the opinions in Section 5 were gathered in a direct and specific manner in areas B and C, whereas in area A, they were deduced from what was said in various conversations with the interviewers). In addition, there is no doubt that the widely different opinions

and expectations amongst those interviewed with regard to the objectives of the survey may have resulted in some distortions and, although instinctively allowance was made for this in the final interpretation, it would have been impossible to eliminate it entirely.

1.4 FIELDWORK

In most cases, the recording instrument was sent to the institution prior to the visit, so that they could begin collecting the information required. The visits took place between February and June 1979. In September 1979, the three area teams met to examine the preliminary versions of the report. In November 1979, the three draft reports were submitted to the Steering Group.

The report on North America was completed in December 1979 and the reports on the three areas were finalised in January 1980. This present general report is therefore based on the three area reports and the report dealing with North America.

The method of analysis can be summarised as follows. The descriptive data are contained in detailed comparative tables in each of the area reports. A less detailed summary is given in the accompanying tables. The opinions have been classified by topic, based on the initial list of key areas referred to above (see 1.1 (c)). Each area report contains the area team's comments on both the descriptive and the opinion data.

The present general report attempts to define the main thrust of these comments and give them a logical pattern. However, its full significance will only be apparent after a perusal of the four other reports to which we shall have occasion to refer i.e. "reports A, B or C" for those dealing with areas A, B or C and the "US report" for the one on North America.

2. INTRODUCTION TO THE GENERAL REPORT

In presenting this report, we need to stress above all that it should be interpreted in the light of what are generally accepted as being the fundamental objectives of a university, i.e. to add to the store of knowledge and pass on this knowledge.

Particularly in recent years, universities have been the centre of numerous arguments: the economic argument (what does a university cost? what contribution does it make to national development?), the social argument (what is the university's contribution to social progress and, in particular, social justice, peace and the sum total of human welfare), the political argument (what are the university's relationships with the forces which attempt to influence national or regional life? does the university tend to upset the existing balance or reinforce established authority?).

There is no doubt that the university should be able to direct and justify its activities in these respects, but it is essential that the constant, fundamental and unswerving reference of any debate must be the quality and value of the university's teaching, research and other contributions to society.

That good university management contributes to the quality and value of these primary functions is a widely held belief and one to which we subscribe wholeheartedly. It should however not be forgotten that this correlation has never really been proved and it is clear to everyone that the best administered university is not necessarily the most outstanding from the academic and teaching point of view. All that can be said is that a badly managed institution, which uses its resources inefficiently, is unlikely to attract teaching staff of a high standard or contracts for research.

We consider it probable therefore that some correlation does exist between quality of management and quality of results for a comparable cost, just as we suspect that a detailed analysis of this correlation would reveal a variety of factors such as sectoral differences (management needs are not the same for every academic discipline), diminishing returns (the cost of some management improvements outweighs the benefits derived) and too much management in absolute or relative terms (some highly sophisticated innovations can prove to be completely unnecessary in themselves or simply in relation to available resources).

In any case, what is management? This report will not attempt to provide a precise definition which, moreover, is not easy to find even in the most authoritative works. It is even doubtful whether management is totally separate from teaching and research: for example, is not setting up a teaching laboratory, organising a study programme or optimising an individual audio-visual course both management and teaching at the same time?

It is in fact significant that respondants, when asked about the problems encountered and future tasks in the area of university management, mentioned university functions more frequently than methods and techniques of management.

DIFFICULTES POUR LA GESTION ET ACTIONS A ENTREPRENDRE: NOMBRES D'OPINIONS *DIFFICULTIES FOR MANAGEMENT, AND FUTURE TASKS: NUMBERS OF OPINIONS*				
	ZONE A *AREA A*	ZONE B *AREA B*	ZONE C *AREA C*	3 ZONES *3 AREAS*
Méthodes et techniques de gestion *Management methods and techniques*	4.3%	4.5%	5%	4.6%
Fonctions de l'Université *University functions*	10.6%	13.6%	16.4%	13.2%
Autres sujets *Other subjects*	85.1%	81.9%	78.6%	82.2%
TOTAL	100%	100%	100%	100%

It is not therefore surprising that, in the pages which follow, questions of method and techniques should take up relatively little space compared with questions which are more general and more concerned with policy.

3. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES

3.1 CHANGES IN FUNCTIONS

(a) The demand profile

It is apparent that the functions of a university have changed and are continuing to change in response to powerful forces. (See in this connection the table on the following page showing the functions mentioned.)

Traditional demand

When questioned about the difficulties and problems confronting university management, respondents mentioned problems concerned with the student population 84 times (2.7 per cent of replies), such mentions being more frequent in the Netherlands (index 3.5), in Switzerland (2.0) and in Ireland (1.5).

In general, the position of European universities with regard to their traditional student population can be summed up in two phrases: mass university education (free access, democratisation) and a stable number of students. This overall picture, however, conceals a relatively large number of individual differences:

- relatively rapid growth in the number of students as the result of population trends (Ireland) or an increase in the rate of access;
- recent increases which have not yet been absorbed, causing major problems in terms of staff and premises and often limiting the resources available for research;
- restrictions on admission to certain faculties as in Germany (where a national office was set up to allocate university places) and the Netherlands;
- restrictions on the duration of studies (Netherlands in 1975 and Germany);
- institutions of a more elitist character with, to all intents and purposes, a numerus clausus (the "Grandes Ecoles" and the "écoles d'ingénieurs" in France and certain "polytechniques" in other countries);
- internal shifts in demand from one faculty to another, which are sometimes substantial and can cause major planning problems;
- institutions which consider themselves too small but for various reasons (inadequate regional recruitment, insufficient range of subjects) do not manage to expand;
- and lastly, certain substantial reductions in the number of students.

Report A also mentions the concern felt with respect to the quality of students as the result of changes in secondary education (this also applies to area B).

The conclusion, therefore, is that the situation varies greatly and requires (and probably will continue to require) each institution to have its own strategy. As far as governments are concerned, their policy seems to be more to regulate what they consider to be abnormal situations (e.g. foreign students, duration of studies, medical faculties, etc.) rather than to question the whole principle of access to higher education. It may be assumed that this attitude will not change over the next few years.

FONCTIONS DE L'UNIVERSITE : NOMBRE DE CITATIONS EN REPONSE AUX QUESTIONS D'OPINIONS "OUVERTES".

UNIVERSITY FUNCTIONS : NUMBER OF CITATIONS IN RESPONSE TO "OPEN" OPINION QUESTIONS

	TOTAL		PAR PAYS ET ZONES *BY COUNTRIES AND AREAS*															PAR PERSONNES INTERROGEES *BY TYPE OF RESPONDENT*										PAR QUESTION *BY QUESTION*		
	NB	%	S	N	DK	IR	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	I	CH	F	I	ZC	Ci	Ca	Rf	Rb	Rp	P	A	AT	E	R2	A	B	C
FONCTIONS, OBJECTIFS, POLITIQUES, PRIORITES *FUNCTIONS, AIMS, POLICIES, PRIORITIES*	95	3.1	2	4	4	2	17	29	5	14	4	23	10	7	13	13	43	15	20	3	1	9	10	8	12	10	7	35	29	31
INTERDISCIPLINARITE *INTERDISCIPLINARITY*	21	0.7	1	3	-	2	3	9	1	-	-	1	2	5	2	2	11	1	3	-	1	2	7	1	1	1	4	6	7	8
RECHERCHE *RESEARCH*	86	2.8	9	5	6	6	5	31	5	10	1	16	5	6	12	16	39	15	7	7	1	7	20	7	3	2	17	29	18	39
ENSEIGNEMENT *TEACHING*	104	3.4	7	4	9	5	7	32	26	10	2	38	7	4	16	7	34	8	8	1	5	13	10	13	7	24	15	23	27	54
EDUCATION PERMANENTE *CONTINUING EDUCATION*	14	0.5	1	3	-	2	3	9	-	-	-	-	1	1	3	-	5	2	-	2	-	5	-	2	-	2	1	4	2	8
RELATIONS AVEC LA SOCIETE *RELATIONS WITH SOCIETY*	87	2.8	1	11	4	9	9	34	7	6	2	15	5	9	8	16	38	19	12	4	5	9	12	8	6	9	3	24	17	46
TOTAL	407	13.2	21	30	23	26	44	144	44	40	9	93	30	31	54	54	170	60	50	17	13	45	59	39	29	48	47	121	100	186
INDICES DE FREQUENCE *INDEX OF FREQUENCY*			0.6	0.9	1.3	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.8	0.9	0.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.4	0.5	1.3	1.2	0.8	0.7	1.1	2.1	0.8	0.8	1.3

* L'indice de fréquence lié à une colonne permet de voir si un sujet est cité proportionnellement moins souvent (<1), aussi souvent (=1) ou plus souvent (>1) que dans la colonne "total".

* *The index of frequency shows if a subject is mentioned proportionaly less often (<1), equally often (=1) or more often (>1) than in the column "total"*

** Les trois questions étaient : A votre avis, quelles sont dans l'ordre d'importance,

A. Les trois principales difficultés actuelles ou prévisibles pour la gestion universitaire, au point de vue de l'institution.
B. Les trois principales difficultés actuelles ou prévisibles pour la gestion universitaire, au point de vue de la personne interrogée.
C. Les trois principales tâches à accomplir dans les prochaines années pour la gestion de votre institution?

** *The three questions were : What in your opinion are, in order of importance,*

A. The three main current or foreseeable difficulties for university management from an institutional viewpoint.
B. The three main current or foreseeable difficulties for university management from the respondent's individual viewpoint.
C. The three main tasks for university management to accomplish in the next few years in your institution?

New types of students

Three factors are gradually changing the demand profile for European universities.

The first of these is the demand for lifelong education, either from individuals exercising a profession or trade, their employers or the government - none of whom is content to accept the traditional curricula, wanting new subject matters introduced (directly related to their occupational needs), new timetables (evenings, week-ends, spread over several years), and new methods (based in particular on the use of case studies). Some countries, like Sweden, have formulated special criteria for enrolling adults in universities.

The second factor involves persons who have reached retirement age and are probably less concerned with academic or vocational training than with cultural enrichment in the broadest sense.

Thirdly, an increasing number of ordinary students are changing the quantity and quality of their involvement in university education in order to engage in related activities or carry on a part-time occupation. In many cases, no official distinction is made between these students and the others; they merely pursue their studies at a slower pace.

One thing which these three new types of demand have in common is that they all involve part-time students. In several European countries, such students have no separate status as far as enrolment conditions are concerned, mainly because of the very low level of fees everywhere (particularly compared with those in the United States).

Public contracts

In addition to the long-standing "research budgets" whose funds are allocated on the recommendation of scientific committees, public authorities have increasingly sought to focus the work of university teams on their particular problems or those of certain sectors of the community, by allocating research contracts for federal, regional, cantonal or local projects.

The most recent tendency in this area is the emergence of a specific demand geared to the support of regional activities. This trend is particularly noticeable in countries which are implementing regional development policies (e.g. Norway, Sweden, Belgium, France, Italy) as well as in the German Federal Republic, and it is likely to continue and even gather momentum if the economic crisis gets worse.

Private contracts

Such contracts, which are the life-blood of many laboratories, are still one of university management's major concerns. In this connection, the article by G. Declercq in the October 1979 issue of the International Journal of Institutional Management in Higher Education is extremely relevant. The economic crisis has in many cases stimulated

the competitiveness of universities vis-à-vis industrial laboratories and this has resulted in the development of liaison bureaux, companies affiliated to universities and science-based industrial parks designed to facilitate the marketing of the "outputs" from university activities, e.g. patents, prototypes, software etc.

The desire to appear useful

The many criticisms which have been levelled at universities in recent years have made them extremely sensitive to the idea of "being useful", of being "held in esteem" by the public and by the authorities. This sensitivity has led an increasing number of the more enterprising and resourceful members of universities to devote much time and energy to activities where their ability has worked wonders even though these activities may sometimes be somewhat remote from genuine scientific endeavour.

New forms of scientific popularisation

Scientific popularisation in all its forms is on the increase, e.g. "open days", the publication of scientific journals, radio and television programmes, exhibitions and even the creation of museums, whilst "activity-related research" creates a new type of link between researchers and the community. These activities, which were once the realm of the individual researcher, are nowadays more often than not undertaken by members of a university working as a team.

The stimulus of a shortage of funds

Since a university's income is, in most cases, geared to the number of students, it is forced to seek other sources, whether these be of the usual kind or not. However, this shortage affects its basic units even more acutely and they have no choice but to attract new outside contracts if they wish to expand their activities. It may be added that many members of the teaching staff, who were hired during the period of rapid expansion, have now reached the age when their motivation with regard to such developments is at its highest.

(b) Consequences

A common feature: competition

By definition, a university is a complex and multi-functional structure. The divisions between faculties and the rivalry between teaching and research have both existed for a very long time. However, from the facts analysed briefly above, it is apparent that there is a major trend towards a yet more complex situation: without abandoning their traditional functions of teaching and research where they have a quasi-monopoly, universities are now devoting an increasing part of their resources to money-making activities where they find themselves in more or less open competition with other university institutions, government agencies, private firms etc.

This can create internal friction and even incompatibility between activities geared to the service of the public and

those more akin to private enterprise in a competitive market. However, in most cases, they can also be genuinely complementary, i.e. these new activities enable university staff and facilities to be more fully employed, whilst providing fresh resources, part of which can be either directly or indirectly allocated to teaching or fundamental research.

Promoting the image of the institution

When the question is not only to continue to provide an essential public service but also to gain a position in a market, primarily to ensure its survival and development, the institution becomes more of an end in itself: it finds itself obliged to develop its image, its bargaining power and its resources, even if the way in which it does this may sometimes be of no direct assistance in the performance of its traditional tasks; each university therefore finds itself compelled to assert its personality and its uniqueness.

An institution's personality may, first of all, take the form of a tradition, whether long-standing or recent. Europe prides itself on its ancient universities, with their origins in the Middle Ages, as well as its "younger" institutions often of an experimental and progressive character. Europe has institutions of a high academic and technical standard, institutions specialising in training for public office, first-cycle institutions and institutions of a national or regional character. It also possesses "comprehensive" universities which combine practically all of these functions. There are also institutions of a less well defined type and with less pronounced individuality, which are more like loose associations of highly individual constituent parts. Moreover, the links between short-term higher education and university education as such vary from country to country: in Italy, for example, there is no non-university higher education, whereas in the United Kingdom a so-called "binary" system has been created.

Each system and each university thus has its own particular strong points but, in our view, the major shift that has occurred in university functions is that, in addition to the "public function", defined from without, with its aim of providing a service and operating within a quasi-monopolistic framework, there is now a competitive sector, whose aims are mostly defined from within and which is more concerned with problems of survival and growth.

Management must therefore to an ever greater extent provide universities with the ways and means, based on their history, their traditions and their strong points, of expanding their resources by introducing activities for which there is an effective demand.

(c) Problems and prospects. The need for flexibility

Such changes raise fundamental problems. Firstly, there is the danger that the notion of public service will be sacrificed to the self-interest of the institution or even its members. Secondly, emphasis may ultimately be placed

on quantity rather than quality. Thirdly, an atmosphere is created in which money plays an increasingly important part and might become an end in itself (e.g. the growth in the number of "fund-raising" activities) and this situation is likely to develop still further in the coming years.

The most serious challenge facing universities in this context, therefore, is that management must obviously be flexible (this problem was mentioned 138 times by respondents, i.e. 4.5 per cent, more than half with reference to staff). This means being able to cope with new problems, sometimes as a matter of urgency. It also means being able to allocate new resources without delay to profitable activities. To a large extent this is a question of mental attitude; it is also a question of management. We shall be dealing with this in greater detail later.

3.2 THE LEVELLING-OFF OF RESOURCES

(a) Background

The rapid increase in resources during the 1960s has, as everyone knows, been followed by a levelling-off and even a decline. This has become a widespread problem and one which figures prominently in the opinions expressed in all three areas.

PROBLEMES DE RESSOURCES : 325 MENTIONS (10.6%) •
PROBLEMS ABOUT RESOURCES: 325 MENTIONS (10.6%) •

INDICES DE FREQUENCES PAR PAYS *INDEX OF FREQ. BY COUNTRY*				INDICES DE FREQUENCES PAR PERSONNE *INDEX OF FREQ. BY TYPE OF RESPONDENT*			
BAS *LOW* (≤ .7)	MOYEN *MEDIUM* (.7 < < 1.3)		HAUT *HIGH* (≥ 1.3)	BAS *LOW* (≤ .7)	MOYEN *MEDIUM* (.7 < < .3)		HAUT *HIGH* (≥ 1.3)
N (6.5) B (0.7)	UK-POL (0.8) D (0.9) A (0.9) S (1.0) IR (1.0)	CH (1.1) F (1.1) I (1.1) DK (1.2) NL (1.2)	UK-Univ (1.4)	Ca (0.6)	Ci (0.8) A (0.8) AT (0.8) R2 (0.5)	Rp (1.0) P (1.0) E (1.0) Rb (1.1)	Rf (2.1)

•Les symboles sont expliqués page: 4 et 10.
•*See pages 4 and 10 the explanation of the symbols.*

The causes have been analysed on many occasions, i.e. the deterioration of the economy and financial situation of European countries, inflation, less priority for higher education and a frequent levelling-off or decline in the number of students (which in many cases determines the level of subsidies).

The change has often come abruptly; resources have begun to level off or, in some cases, even to decline slightly at a critical stage in the process of exponential growth. Combined with the increase in certain costs (particularly those of wages and energy), this sudden change has caused budgetary problems of sometimes dramatic proportions.

This has been compounded by uncertainty, as mentioned in particular in the report on area A: the cash sums available are often not known until well into the financial year; adjustments have to be made, either upward or downward, during the year; since the rate of inflation is unpredictable, payroll costs cannot be forecast.

The result is that planning horizons have shortened and become less stable, whilst certain planning procedures, such as the British quinquennial process, have collapsed or been abandoned. Hence some loss of confidence in the planning process, where used, and the search for new approaches to replace the traditional methods.

(b) Consequences

From the management viewpoint, this levelling-off of resources has numerous repercussions, which have already been described in great detail. Here we will merely mention some of the more important consequences and those which were most frequently quoted during the interviews.

- At first sight it would seem difficult to innovate. During the growth phase, this was merely a question of allocating additional resources to innovatory sectors. In the present situation, resources have to be withdrawn from some sectors to enable others to expand.
- The idea of economy has gained ground everywhere: there is a more general awareness of costs. However, as report B points out, the full effects of this will be felt only when economies are credited directly to the units which achieve them, i.e. the basic units, faculties or universities. This is far from being the case in systems where resource transfers between categories are not allowed.
- Financial restrictions have led to various measures to freeze posts, restricting to a minimum the creation of new posts and in many cases leaving existing vacancies unfilled. Such policies are likely in the long term to result in an ageing of the teaching staff.
- The atmosphere of insecurity has led staff to seek maximum security in terms of status, career or function. This has resulted in the adoption of defensive attitudes, to the detriment of progressive and flexible management.
- The risks of bankruptcy as such are fairly remote in view of the fact that there are no genuinely private universities. Mention could however be made of the dangers confronting the Catholic University of the Sacred Heart in Milan or several French universities which, a few years ago, found themselves unable to pay their contractual staff which they had hired on their operating budget. Bankruptcy does however represent a threat, which is mentioned in report B in particular. In the case of the more independent institutions, this is

coupled with the threat of a takeover by the State or, at least, a greater degree of State control.

- Institutions are devoting a smaller proportion of their budget to operating costs than to wages and salaries, with the result that their "scope for manoeuvre" is considerably reduced: the overriding impression often is that resources are devoted exclusively to essential needs. Sometimes certain internal projects cannot be carried out, e.g. in France as well as in Italy, there is a very real problem with regard to major building maintenance (this point is also mentioned in report B).
- The lack of funds and the struggle for survival is forcing institutions to look for additional resources (see 3.1 (a)).
- Universities have slowly begun to react and have mobilised to combat rigid expenditure patterns and thus maintain a certain degree of flexibility, despite the stagnation of their resources: there is increasing discussion on how internal resources should be allocated and a growing habit of questioning every expenditure, particularly when a post becomes vacant.
- Many respondents attached less importance to the restrictions themselves than to the manner in which they were applied and the way their effects combined with those of the regulations already in force, i.e. the freezing of posts, bans on transfers, the resort to makeshifts, the adoption of ceilings, etc.
- Financial management has of course been influenced by these restrictions, i.e. tighter internal (and external) controls, more accurate cost allocation, standardisation of financial management procedures, increased centralised control of external contracts. In some institutions there is also evidence of a marked trend towards internal allocation of various expense items, e.g. telephone, photocopies, use of the computer or audio-visual equipment, and even electricity, heating etc. This system is not, however, as widespread as one might expect.
- Has the productivity of universities really increased as a result of these recent restrictions? As report A states, across-the-board cuts in the case of universities do not necessarily result in a drop in unit costs. In fact, it would seem that a number of cuts have been made in a haphazard fashion, with no concern for their effects on teaching and research.

The main consequence of this freezing of the level of resources is perhaps the changed atmosphere in universities, i.e. at worst, a lowering of morale brought about by a feeling of frustration; at best, an increasingly active search for new resources; in many cases, there has been increased internal rivalry and competition for scarcer resources.

However, whatever the result, the outlook is far from encouraging; none of the reasons for these cuts seems about to disappear. The most that can be hoped is that once the initial shock has passed the contrast will appear less sharp and the impression of penury less acute. Much will in fact

depend on the ability of the authorities to let the universities organise their economy measures on their own and take financial responsibility for their decisions. But more important still, universities will have to show an unswerving determination to seek ways of economising, increase their efficiency, eradicate wasteful practices and find new outlets.

3.3 TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCES

A technological innovation, as soon as it is introduced, will often result in a dramatic change. In many cases, it will reduce staff, thereby freeing them for other tasks and lowering the cost of many activities. But it will also make possible certain new activities: in university management, it will increase the range of services provided and, as a result, the number of tasks performed, while speeding up operations.

It is surprising that the opinions we gathered contain few references to technological advances. However, in view of the importance of this aspect, we would like to devote some attention to it.

(a) The computer

Most of the development in the use of the computer in university management has occurred during the past ten years. Its effect has been substantial. One section of the questionnaire provides some facts in this connection, although our sample probably contains an abnormally high proportion of the better equipped universities and the questionnaire itself does not deal with the problem of the quality of the data processing applications.

The computer seems to be used on average for about 60 per cent of the 15 operations on which questions were put to the 53 universities surveyed. The following are the operations most extensively computerised, in order of importance: student records; staff salaries and wages; financial management (although, in many cases, this is still in the process of being computerised). The computer is far less extensively used for buildings, equipment and research activities. There is a growing interest in the computerisation of data on teaching activities, curricula and staff costs. However, within this overall picture there are wide qualitative and quantitative differences.

In most instances, the main reason for using a computer has been to handle administrative tasks, which it can perform more swiftly and more accurately, while enabling new operations to be carried out. Computerisation has often been implemented sector by sector, with the result that with most of the systems observed there were problems of co-ordination, which are gradually being ironed out. The fact that the computer was originally intended for administrative purposes can also cause a problem, i.e. information which is useful for decision-making is regarded as merely a by-product of administrative systems, which often means that it is inadequate.

INFORMATISATION - NIVEAU D'UTILISATION - SYNTHESE PAR DOMAINES (%)
COMPUTERISATION - EXTENT OF USAGE - SUMMARY BY TYPE OF OPERATION (%).

	USAGE MAJEUR *MAJOR USAGE*	USAGE MINEUR *MINOR USAGE*	PAS D'USAGE MAIS EN PROJET *NO USAGE BUT USAGE PLANNED*	PAS D'USAGE NI DE PROJET *NO USAGE AND NO PLANS*	SANS REPONSE *NO RESPONSE*
FICHIERS ETUDIANTS *STUDENT RECORDS*	87	8	2	2	1
INSCRIPTIONS ETUDIANTS *STUDENT ADMISSIONS*	79	8	8	6	0
EXAMENS *EXAMS*	43	36	15	4	2
STATISTQUES ETUDIANTS *STUDENT STATISTICS*	79	11	4	4	2
SALAIRES *WAGES*	86	6	8	0	0
FACTURES *BILLS*	55	8	17	15	5
ANALYSE DES REVENUS *INCOME ANALYSIS*	31	21	25	23	0
ANALYSE DES DEPENSES *EXPENDITURE ANALISIS*	40	30	19	11	0
CONTROLES BUDGETAIRES *BUDGETARY CONTROL*	51	15	21	11	2
DOSSIERS DU PERSONNEL *STAFF RECORDS*	25	30	23	17	5
INVENTAIRE DES EQUIPEMENTS *EQUIPMENT INVENTORY*	25	15	28	32	0
ALLOCATION DES ESPACES *SPACE ALLOCATION*	15	9	26	47	3
PROCEDURES BIBLIOTHEQUES *LIBRARY PROCEDURES*	38	17	26	15	4
HORAIRES D'ENSEIGNEMENT *TEACHING TIMETABLES*	8	17	23	51	1
MODELES - SIMULATIONS *MODELLING - SIMULATIONS*	9	13	6	70	2
GLOBAL	45	16	17	20	2

For example, since administrative operations are in most cases carried out on an annual basis, "historical" data are difficult to obtain. The two drawbacks mentioned above, namely the lack of co-ordination and the strictly administrative conception, largely explain the lack of more advanced applications involving, for instance, the use of simulation models.

This last fact bears out the general impression that the use of computers is on the average less advanced in universities than in other sectors of society. One of the reasons, which will be discussed later, is that university management is different from industrial management and therefore cannot use most of the software available on the market. There is also the fact that the development of systems specially designed for university management has been very slow and this has hampered the process of standardisation which is essential if the market for such special software is to expand. In some countries, particularly the smaller ones, the government has made an effort to encourage such standardisation by financing various types of study, mainly concerned with the compiling of data dictionaries, which are essential if the information the government itself receives is to be standardised.

INFORMATISATION - NIVEAU D'UTILISATION - SYNTHESE PAR PAYS (%)
COMPUTERISATION - EXTENT OF USAGE - SUMMARY BY COUNTRY (%)

	USAGE MAJEUR *MAJOR USAGE*	USAGE MINEUR *MINOR USAGE*	PAS D'USAGE MAIS EN PROJET *NO USAGE BUT USAGE PLANNED*	PAS D'USAGE NI DE PROJET *NO USAGE AND NO PLANS*	SANS REPONSE *NO RESPONSE*	PARTIE D'UN SYSTEME NATIONAL *PART OF NATIONAL SYSTEM*
S	51	22	16	11	0	38
N	66	11	7	16	0	0
DK	54	10	3	33	0	10
IR	53	9	13	24	0	7
UK/U	46	17	12	25	0	17
UK/P	27	17	10	46	0	3
UK	40	17	11	32	0	12
EA	51	14	11	24	0	13
NL	33	43	13	10	0	0
D	49	26	12	12	1	10
A	41	9	20	30	0	12
EB	43	30	15	12	0	8
B	58	18	7	13	4	29
CH	41	17	27	15	0	17
F	41	5	23	22	9	10
E/E	23	13	31	28	5	0
E/L	53	3	27	17	0	0
I	33	10	29	24	3	0
EC	41	11	23	20	5	11
GLOBAL	44	18	17	19	2	11

(b) Other technologies

Compared with the part played by computers, the impact of other technologies might seem modest but, over the past ten years, the technological environment of university management has nonetheless undergone a profound change.

The extension of the telephone system, the drop in the cost of photocopies, printing techniques (photo-composition, for example, could play a major part in university management) and office calculators have profoundly changed the day-to-day administrative and management scene. The day when office work is automated does not seem far off.

There can be no doubt that in the future, more so than in the past, management at minimum cost will require at every level a careful choice of equipment, the ability to adjust to new techniques and individual skill in the practical use of this equipment.

A new computer revolution is on the way. It will involve the spread of remote access systems, easier and more decentralised processing and improvements in the storage and handling of documents. It is likely to change working habits far more than the previous revolutions.

3.4 RELATIONS WITH THE PUBLIC AUTHORITIES

(a) The current situation

The relations between universities and the public authorities have evolved considerably over the past ten years and were considered by most of our respondents as an important cause of change. Relations differ substantially from one country to another and the detailed reports contain a wealth of information on this subject. National systems differ mainly in the degree to which university institutions depend on the public authorities.

One of the several features which can be used to divide these systems into two broad categories is the existence or absence of legislation governing the administration (and certain aspects of the internal management) of institutions (see table on next page).

- In the United Kingdom, Ireland and the system of free universities in Belgium such legislation does not exist. The Catholic University in Milan and the Free University in Trent (Italy) also have a certain degree of organisational independence. From the criteria available it may also be considered that these systems allow universities the greatest degree of independence and autonomy. The past ten years have seen an erosion of the university's area of autonomy within these systems.
- Under the other systems, either this dependence has always been very close and has remained so or there has been a somewhat paradoxical development over the past ten years. This paradox stems from the fact that a genuine desire on the part of the public authorities to increase the university's area of autonomy has, in practice, come up against a series of obstacles which have proved insurmountable. We shall be referring to this again at a later stage.

EXISTENCE DE LOIS REGISSANT L'ORGANISATION INTERNE DES INSTITUTIONS *EXISTENCE OF LEGISLATION GOVERNING THE INTERNAL ORGANISATION OF THE INSTITUTIONS*	
S	1975 reform Act.
N	-
DK	1973 Act on the management of Higher Education Institutions
IR	-
UK/UNIV	-
UK/POLY	-
NL	Wet Universitaire Bestuurhervorming (1970).
D	Hochschulrahmengesetz (niveau fédéral) après 1970. State university Acts (états) 1977-1979.
A	Universitäts-organisationsgesetz (1975).
B/ETAT *STATE*	Loi du 28 avril 1953 sur l'organisation des universités d'Etat. Modifiée notamment en mars 1971.
B/LIBRES *FREE*	-
CH/CANT	Lois cantonales
CH/FED	Loi fédérale
F/UNIV	Loi d'orientation du 12 novembre 1968.
F/POLY	Loi d'orientation du 12 novembre 1968.
I/ETAT *STATE*	Loi du 31 août 1933 sur l'enseignement supérieur. Loi des mesures urgentes sur l'université, du 30 novembre 1973.
I/LIBRES *FREE*	Loi du 31 août 1933 sur l'enseignement supérieur.

The general tendency, therefore, is for the autonomy of universities to diminish, and this has been accentuated by the effects of legislation on employment, safety, labour relations etc.

In countries with a federal system of government (Germany, Switzerland), the member states ("Länder", "Cantons") are responsible for the university systems; the institutions are under their authority as in the case of the state universities in North America. There is evidence, however, of a tendency for the role of the federal authorities to increase, particularly in the area of building and research grants. This tendency is however less marked in Switzerland (a bill proposing an increase in federal powers was defeated in a referendum). In the other countries, there are signs of a trend towards regionalisation: in Sweden, the setting up of regional university councils made such regionalisation a legal fact; in Italy, some areas such as university hospitals now come under the regional authority, while certain provinces or regions enjoy a special degree of autonomy under the terms of the Constitution; in Belgium, there is now a move towards regionalisation, i.e. there are two Ministries of Education and universities are tending to form themselves

AUTONOMIE DES DECISIONS (MAX = 100)
AUTONOMY OF DECISIONS (MAX = 100)

	INDICE 1 *INDEX 1*		INDICE 2 *INDEX 2*	
S	59		61	
N	45		49	
DK	43		49	
IR	87		87	
UK/UNIV		100		100
UK/POLY		60		66
UK	87		88	
NL	43		51	
D	29		41	
A	32		35	
B/LIBRES *FREE*		93		93
CH-CANT		29		41
CH-FED		20		73
CH	27		48	
F-UNIV		40		45
F-POLY		54		53
F	42		47	
I/ETAT *STATE*		46		63
I/LIBRES *FREE*		73		84
I	58		67	

Explication. 20 décisions ont été examinées dans chaque institution. Les indices sont les pourcentages de décisions prises de manière autonome.

Indice 1: sont considérées comme autonomes les décisions qui ne demandent aucune approbation externe.

Indice 2: sont considérées comme autonomes, les décisions qui ne demandent qu'une approbation externe formelle, toujours acquise.

Ces indices considèrent comme NON autonomes les décisions "impossibles" ou au sujet desquelles aucune réponse n'a été donnée.

Explanation. 20 decisions have been analysed in each institution. The indexes are the percentages of decisions taken autonomously.

Index 1: considers as autonomous the decisions taken without any external approval.

Index 2: considers as autonomous, too, the decisions requiring only a formal approval, which is always given.

Both indexes consider as NON autonomous the decisions which were mentioned as "impossible" or about which "no answer" was given.

into regional groups; in France, the Act setting up regional university councils has not been applied, but there is evidence of closer ties between universities and some regional or local authorities, particularly in the area of research.

This trend towards regionalisation (which the United Kingdom seems to have been the only major country to have escaped) may over the long term, if it continues, lead to a gradual grouping of universities into "small" systems comprising five to twenty institutions, similar to the "state systems" described in the United States report. Currently, the size of university systems varies enormously, ranging from 1 (the cantonal universities in Switzerland) to 70 or 80 (as in France or the United Kingdom). It is obvious that the relations between universities and the public authorities

must always be assessed according to the size of the system. In a Swiss canton, the relations between public authorities and the university are such that the very notion of independence or autonomy may have no meaning; in a major national system, the dependent relations, which are for the most part depersonalised, may become markedly bureaucratic in character.

Various types of intervention were mentioned during the survey:

- legislation concerning the internal structures of universities, sometimes leaving very little scope for the actual university statutes;
- nomination of university authorities by the government;
- appointment of teaching staff and administrative and technical personnel;
- the maintenance of a certain degree of direct dependence on the part of the head of administration in his relations with the minister; in Austria, university management officially comprises a "state area", in which the head of administration is directly responsible to the minister; many other systems contain similar, more or less official, arrangements of this kind;
- the presence of one or more representatives of the national or regional authorities in one or more of the institution's management bodies, sometimes with a right of veto on certain matters (e.g. Belgium);
- approval of detailed "line item" budgets for institutions;
- administrative and financial controls exercised on behalf either of the executive or the legislative authority; in some instances, these controls impose a pattern of financial management on universities which is modelled on that of a government department and does not always suit the requirements of university management;
- restrictions on transfers of resources during the year from one budget item to another;
- direct interventions, sometimes described as "political" interventions and usually more frequent in the case of small systems where the institution is closer to the political authority.

(b) Reasons and justifications

The reasons and justifications for the growing influence of the state have already been a subject of much discussion. Heading the list is the fact that the state provides 90 per cent of the funds of almost every European university. A second explanation is the state's increasing intervention in all sectors of society, which has been even further accentuated by the economic crisis (e.g. assistance to firms in difficulty in return for which the state takes up certain holdings). It must be admitted that, in this respect, universities have not suffered the most.

It must be added that people still find it extremely difficult to cope with large systems and particularly university systems. All too frequently the tendency is to try to solve fairly specific problems by means of very general measures, which are often too drastic and, as a result, vitiated by their unforeseen effects. These "systems effects" are all the more difficult to control in that government

departments are far from identical, particularly in the larger countries, and are unable to formulate and apply coherent sets of measures. There are too many laws and regulations which interact in an unpredictable fashion. Being in many cases too detailed, they allow no room for experiment, and in such cases, progress is only possible by fits and starts, from one set of new regulations to another. Universities as a whole have sometimes had to pay very dearly for the management errors of one or two of them, precisely because an attempt was made to eliminate such errors by applying blanket controls or countermeasures to all institutions.

Trade union action, too, seems to us to have led on the whole to an increase in the state's influence since trade union strategies and tactics are national in scope and because they too, in their fight against arbitrary action, are obliged to demand global measures to promote equality. This is why, in many countries, institutions are being stripped of most of their normal functions as employers.

Amongst the other factors which are helping to reduce university autonomy are personality factors, which have sometimes added a particular dimension to the trend we are analysing here, e.g. a minister's forthright language, a government representative's uncompromising attitude, the requirements of a delicately balanced political situation, the jealous guarding of administrative prerogatives etc. In our opinion, however, such factors are of marginal importance.

One further explanation occurs to us. If what we stated earlier is true, i.e. that not only is the university's function as a public service in question but also its increasingly independent activities in response to the wide range of market demand, it is not surprising that the authorities should show a certain amount of concern and react by demanding solid assurances that the university will perform its public service function. If they are unable to obtain such assurances, their reaction will be to increase the number of regulations and controls.

This general analysis should of course not mask the fact that national factors play an important part by the way they colour relationships between the authorities and the institutions. This is described in detail in the area reports.

(c) The consequences

1. It would be unfair to contend that such regulations and interventions have failed in their objectives. In the majority of cases, they have made for clearer, fairer and better resource utilisation.

2. The existence of regulatory straitjackets, however, is likely to be very prejudicial to flexible university management, the urgent need for which we have been at pains to emphasize (see 3.1 (c)).

3. The influence of politics is likely to increase. For one thing, changes in the government of a country can result in unduly frequent changes in the legislation affecting universities, making the systems unstable. In addition, there may be direct intervention of various kinds.

4. The systems of rules and regulations can in some cases create large areas of uncertainty and often be contradictory; institutions are tempted to take advantage of this through "political" activity on the part of their administrators, who thus find themselves intervening constantly with the authorities: which is where equity and clarity end.

5. The increasing mass of laws and regulations results in more legal activity, e.g. adjudications, appraisals, conciliation procedures etc.

6. In order to escape to some extent from the increasingly heavy yoke of the state, institutions may decide to form associations to deal jointly with some of their problems. This may well be happening in Belgium while in the United Kingdom, there is a specific example in the shape of the Committee of University Vice-Chancellors and Principals.

7. This closing of the ranks inevitably accentuates national differences and does not therefore favour international exchange (i.e. the mobility of university professors or greater exchange of information regarding university management).

(d) Respondents' opinions and comments

For the most part, university regulations aroused distinctly negative comments: they were considered complicated, contradictory and often pointless. Although the authorities' concern to deal with certain problems by way of regulations is understandable, present-day university systems in our opinion suffer in most cases from a surfeit of laws and regulations. Not only will it be necessary in the future to legislate with the utmost care, but it may even prove necessary to revise current systems of regulations by a process of simplification or even elimination.

It should not be concluded from the foregoing remarks that there has been a serious loss of academic liberty in European universities. In the first place, there has been scarcely any erosion of the individual freedom of teaching staff with regard to the actual content of their academic activities, except perhaps for some restriction on new initiatives due to the decline in available resources and the steady growth of consultative processes. Secondly, it is apparent that teaching programmes and staff appointments are still often dealt with at a relatively low level in the system, i.e. the department or institute. Providing the proposals made by such bodies comply with the regulations, they are generally endorsed by higher authority. When this is not the case, the latter generally takes the precaution of referring the matter to some major national consultative body composed almost entirely of members of the teaching profession, thereby safeguarding typically academic matters from the threat of political domination.

Lastly, the most real danger is perhaps not the loss of academic prerogatives but the difficulty, at national level, of creating a proper harmony between these prerogatives and the powers of the authorities in the administrative and financial areas. Such harmonisation, which is already very difficult at the level of the institution or department, becomes practically impossible when it is hampered by political conflicts at national level. When this happens,

academic autonomy becomes no more than the ability to paralyse any initiative on the part of the authorities, whereas the latter's powers are reduced to that of blocking initiatives on the part of the institutions. Both sides are therefore thwarted.

AUTONOMIE ET DECENTRALISATION INTERNE DE 5 DECISIONS "ACADEMIQUES"
AUTONOMY AND INTERNAL DECENTRALISATION OF 5 "ACADEMIC" DECISIONS.

	METHODES D'ENSEIGNEMENT *TEACHING METHODS*		PROGRAMME D'ENSEIGNEMENT *TEACHING PROGRAM*		CREATION COURS AUTOFINANCE *SELF-FINANCING COURSE*		ACCEPTATION SUBSIDE RECHERCHE *ACCEPTANCE OF RESEARCH GRANT*		CHOIX DU CHEF DE L'INSTITUTION *APPOINTMENT AS HEAD OF INSTITUTION*	
S	100	100	33	100	100	66	100	100	0	0
N	100	66	100	66	100	83	100	33	0	17
DK	75	75	75	100	100	100	100	100	50	0
IR	100	33	66	66	100	66	100	100	100	0
UK/UNI	100	100	100	100	100	75	100	100	100	0
UK/POL	75	50	50	50	25	100	100	50	50	0
UK	92	83	83	83	75	66	100	83	83	0
ZA	94	71	74	82	91	74	100	65	35	3
NL	100	75	100	100	25	38	100	75	0	0
D	71	86	14	71	0	21	100	96	0	0
A	1	0	0	25	0	0	80	80	1	0
ZB	88	56	69	63	6	19	94	81	31	0
B/LIBRES *FREE*	100	100	100	66	100	66	100	100	66	0
CH/CANT	100	100	66	66	66	66	100	100	66	0
CH/FED	0	100	0	0	0	0	100	100	0	0
CH	100	100	50	50	50	50	100	100	50	0
F/U	100	100	33	33	83	33	83	83	100	0
F/P	100	100	100	100	100	0	100	100	100	0
F	100	100	43	50	86	33	86	81	100	0
I/ETAT *STATE*	100	100	25	100	0	0	100	50	25	0
I/LIBRES *FREE*	50	50	50	50	100	0	100	0	100	0
I	83	83	33	83	33	0	100	17	50	0
ZC	90	95	50	60	65	32	95	70	70	0
GLOBAL	91	76	52	68	48	41	96	72	47	1

Le premier chiffre est le pourcentage d'universités qui prennent la décision de manière autonome.

Le second chiffre est le pourcentage d'universités où la décision est prise par un organe décentralisé, ou par le professeur individuel.

The first number is the percentage of universities taking the decision autonomously.

The second number is the percentage of universities where the decision is taken by a decentralised body, or by the individual professor.

To end on an optimistic note, it is to be hoped that the atmosphere of confrontation which, over the past few years, has too often been a feature of the relations between the universities and the government departments and public authorities, may now be subjected to a critical analysis centred not on any defence of the prerogatives of authority or on axiomatic autonomy, but on a joint endeavour to forge links capable of ensuring the maximum efficiency of university institutions in an atmosphere of co-operation.

3.5 STAFF AND STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING

Having been a major issue in university management for the past ten to twelve years, "participation" more than any other aspect of management has become a myth which is not always easy to define, especially as it has become important to all sides, a rallying point for some, a bogey to others. It is therefore extremely difficult to put forward unbiased views on this subject.

"Participation" generally means the participation of staff and students in the management of the institution. There is no doubt that since 1968 this participation has developed considerably under the influence of both internal and external factors. The table below gives a summary of the answers returned by our respondents to some questions concerned with participation.

OPINIONS SUR LA PARTICIPATION DU PERSONNEL : POURCENTAGE PAR PAYS
OPINIONS ABOUT STAFF PARTICIPATION : PERCENTAGE BY COUNTRY

		S	N	DK	IR	UK	NL	D	A	B/L	CH	F	I
Depuis 1968, y a-t-il eu augmentation de la participation aux décisions du personnel autre que professeurs? *Has the degree of participation of personnel other than tenured academic staff in decision-taking since 1968 increased?*	oui *yes*	100	100	100	88	98	94	73	100	63	86	86	92
	non *no*	0	0	0	12	2	6	27	0	37	14	14	8
Principale cause de cette augmentation *Most important cause of this increase*	- législation *- legislation*	92	38	85	18	30	72	100	50	13	56	92	54
	- accords interuniversitaires *- agreements amongst universities*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	- pression du personnel *- pressures from the personnel*	18	33	-	72	50	25	-	45	53	19	4	44
	- initiative de l'institution *- initiative of the institution*	-	29	15	10	20	3	-	5	33	25	4	2
Importance de ce changement pour la gestion. *Importance of this change for management.*	- le plus important *- the most important*	18	0	46	0	2	34	33	58	8	8	11	6
	- un des plus importants *- one of the most important*	77	71	54	5	30	66	59	42	58	60	85	88
	- relativement mineur *- relatively minor*	5	29	-	95	68	-	8	-	35	32	4	6

It can be seen from the table that the question "has the degree of participation increased?" was answered affirmatively by over 75 per cent of the respondents in all countries except Belgium (63 per cent) and the Federal Republic of Germany (73 per cent).

Legislation is everywhere considered as the dominant factor in this increase. As might be expected, there are considerable differences between countries: in Belgium (13 per cent) and Ireland (18 per cent) the role of legislation is considered as very minor, and in the United Kingdom (30 per cent) as minor. This is scarcely surprising, as these are the three countries in which legislation plays a very small part in determining the internal bodies of institutions. By contrast, the role of legislation was considered particularly important in Germany (100 per cent), France (92 per cent), Denmark (85 per cent) and Sweden (82 per cent).

In Ireland, Belgium and the United Kingdom, it is pressure by the staff which is considered to have been the main cause of the increase (72, 53 and 50 per cent respectively). Initiative by the institutions themselves is considered to have very little influence, except in Belgium (33 per cent), Norway (29 per cent) and Switzerland (25 per cent).

An analysis of the "open opinions" collected shows that the advantages and disadvantages of participation are mainly perceived as indirect:

- frequently cited advantages are the clarification of responsibilities and procedures and a change in day-to-day personal relations;
- the disadvantages most often quoted are the cumbersome and slow decision-making procedure (consuming much time and energy) and the danger of inertia due to the difficulty of securing a majority amongst the groups concerned in favour of any decision which breaks with established habits.

As can be seen in the table below, 40 of the 53 institutions visited have at least 50 per cent of the staff and student representatives on at least one important managing body. This situation is most prevalent in Scandinavia, in area B and in France. It is usual in Italy and Switzerland, but there are exceptions. In Ireland and the independent Belgian institutions it is unusual while it just does not exist in the United Kingdom. This development represents an important shift in the power basis in universities. The power formally exercised in association by the academic staff alone has been succeeded by the legitimacy of elected representatives. Students seem to have played a substantial role in the early years of the system, but their interest diminished rapidly. This new legitimacy lies primarily in the different categories of staff in the great majority of European institutions. Does this new form of management reflect a balanced situation? It would be rash to make such a claim. Nevertheless, our contacts lead us to make an initial observation which we consider fundamental.

PAYS *COUNTRIES*	S	N	DK	IR	UK	NL	D	A	B	CH	F	I	TOT
INSTITUTIONS VISITEES *INSTITUTIONS VISITED*	3	3	2	3	6	4	7	5	3	4	7	6	53
INSTITUTIONS AYANT AU MOINS 50% de représentants du personnel et des étudiants dans au moins un organe central important. *INSTITUTIONS HAVING AT LEAST 50% of personnel or student representatives in at least one important central body.*	3	3	2	1	0	4	7	5	1	3	7	4	40

The big question is whether this "new power" promotes the public service functions assigned to universities, and enables the situation to assert itself in the competitive context described above. By their very nature there is in fact a considerable divergence between the objectives of the staff

(whether considered as a whole or by category) and the needs of the institutions. This divergence is at the very root of union action and it is easy to see the importance that the unions attach to the period leading up to the election of staff representatives.

The danger of the emergence of a kind of "self-management" based on the unions and without any reference to the results of the institutions' activities (whether these results be financial or other) weighed heavily on the beginnings of participation and soon limited its scope. Where institutions were already endowed with a strong non-participative type of authority, participation was hampered from the start. In other institutions, it was curbed by the state itself which either increased its direct intervention or switched its support to non-participative bodies within the university. The material effect of this defensive move (which may be considered as an essential readjustment from the organisational point of view) justifies a certain scepticism with regard to the current stage of participation. Moreover, there are indications that where participation really remains adamant and uncompromising, the institution loses its power of decision.

But the adoption of participation has also had secondary effects which are also of considerable importance to management. One of these effects is the striking importance taken on by the <u>election</u> of representatives. The frequency with which elections are held varies with the country, the system, the level and the category of representative concerned, but is high in many cases. Furthermore, the operation is often complex, cumbersome and expensive, for voting is by category and takes place at several levels. Finally, except in Germany and Austria, elections are organised on the list system and the most important lists are the more or less official ones compiled by the unions. They reflect political programmes and are often circulated with the help of the institution itself. This new development is now quite an important factor in the life of university communities and its effects warrant further analysis.

The representation of the various categories sometimes underlined by the method of voting also gives a sharper form to <u>two types of differentiation</u>, i.e. by categories and by ideologies or political families. The former is fairly self-evident: representatives elected by a particular category of staff are bound to be sensitive to the problems of that category. At best, there is a risk that they will concentrate on issues that are sometimes marginal; at worst, this leads to an unhealthy corporatism, a source of opposition to progress. The second form of distinction is not codified anywhere, but carries considerable weight and has to be increasingly taken into account by university managers: transcending the boundaries between categories, political alliances form around party or union lists which are themselves linked to the different currents of the country's political life through the national federations. This situation has far-reaching implications. Internally, it generates a system which runs parallel to that of the official bodies, and is similar to that of political parties, with their meetings and alliances and even attempts to seize power. If the head of the institution is (as in France) elected by these elected representatives, there is also the risk that he will represent a particular faction or trend rather than the community at large. Externally, it makes the universities more sensitive to national political events: motions, strikes and demonstrations

can paralyse the life of the university for reasons irrelevant to the university, while on the other hand relations between an institution and the central power (in particular the minister responsible for universities) can be seriously compromised simply because of the political colouring (real or suspected) of its head. It is by no means certain that this type of link with society is the most likely to open up education and research to the problems of the world. Here again, Germany seems to escape from this situation.

ASSOCIATIONS ET SYNDICATS
ASSOCIATIONS AND UNIONS

	NOMBRE PAR INSTITUTION *NUMBER PER INSTITUTION*	TYPE D'ASSOCIATION (%) *TYPE OF ASSOCIATION %*					REPRESENTATION (%) *REPRESENTATION (%)*				
		1	2	3	4	TOT	A	B	C	D	TOT
S	3.3			100		100	100				100
N	5.3		6	94		100	31	69			100
DK	7.5		40	60		100		100			100
IR	4.6	36	7	57		100	14	50	36		100
UK	4.7		18	82		100		70	12	18	100
ZA	5.2	6	16	78		100	19	64	10	7	100
NL	...										
D	...										
A	...										
ZB	...										
B/L	4.6	50	7	43		100	50	29		21	100
CH	6	67	13	20		100	33		29	38	100
F	13.8	16	1	83		100		16		84	100
I	6.8	2	10	83	5	100		22		78	100
ZC	8.2	24	6	69	1	100	10	16	5	69	100
GLOBAL	6.7	17	10	72	1	100	14	34	7	47	100

EXPLICATION *EXPLANATION*

1. Association interne sans relation externe
   Internal association with no external connections.
2. Branche interne d'une association professionnelle nationale
   Internal branch of the national professional association
3. Branche interne d'un syndicat national
   Internal branch of a national trade union.
4. Syndicat ou association nationale sans représentation locale
   National trade union or association without local representation

A. Représenté en tant que tel dans des organes de décision
   Represented as such on decision-taking bodies
B. Membre de comités mis sur pied spécialement pour la négociation
   Member of University Committees set up specially for negociation
C. Membres ou observateurs dans des organes de décision, à titre consultatif
   Members or observers on University bodies (consultation)
D. Pas de représentation
   No representation

In addition to these two distinctions - by category and by politics or ideology - we must consider a third one of much longer standing: that of academic disciplines, reflecting the division of the university into components (various methods, such as two-tier elections, normally guarantee a minimum representation for each component part). The central representative body not only has many members but also a very complex structure. Shot through with various political currents and agitated by shifting alliances, this body demands a new type of aptitude (political sensitivity, unfailing sense of contact, ability to handle a meeting) from its Chairman and indeed from anybody who seeks to gain a hearing.

This life of meetings also calls for an appropriate organisation: enormous conference tables, use of microphones, time limits on speakers, careful recording of those present, substitutes, detailed minutes, formation of bureaux and committees, voting procedure etc. In concrete terms participation demands a complex machinery, the operation of which is not easy to master.

This whole arsenal of methods has, however, finally evolved more explicit and more systematic decision-making procedures, which have promoted firmer consensus (even if the majority rule now prevails rather than a collegial system) and have hence made decisions more stable. Unfortunately, their cumbersome nature, which leads to a certain feeling of impotence, has also discouraged a good number of representatives, who tend not to stand for re-election, or to react by passiveness and absenteeism. If, as is only too often the case, meetings are therefore reduced to a minority or have to adjourn for lack of a quorum, there is no longer any true democracy and the way is open even to seizure of power. It goes without saying that in order to avoid this kind of situation the bodies in question have a vital need for chairmen capable of galvanising them while remaining strictly in the service of the general interest.

3.6 COMPLEXITY AND COHESION

In the preceding section we considered five factors in the evolution of university management: the evolution of university functions, the levelling-off of resources, technological change, the trend in relations with the state, the participation of staff and students. We also considered some of the consequences of these factors.

One spectacular consequence of these different factors attracted the attention of many of our respondents: their complexity.

LA COMPLEXITE COMME PROBLEME : ANALYSE DES OPINIONS

COMPLEXITY AS A PROBLEM : ANALYSIS OF OPINIONS

	PAR PAYS ET PAR ZONE *BY COUNTRY AND AREA*															
	S	N	DK	IR	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT
COMPLEXITE *COMPLEXITY*	6	1	-	3	2	12	4	-	-	4	5	4	-	1	10	26
LOURDEUR *CUMBERSONE PROCEDURES*	9	17	2	7	13	48	-	1	-	1	5	2	6	-	13	62
TOTAL	15	18	2	10	15	64	4	1	-	5	10	6	6	1	23	88
INDICE DE FREQUENCE *INDEX OF FREQUENCY*	2.1	2.4	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.5	0.8	0.1	0	0.3	1.8	0.9	0.7	0.1	0.8	

	PAR PERSONNE INTERROGEE *BY TYPE OF RESPONDENT*										PAR QUESTIONS *BY QUESTIONS*		
	Ci	Ca	Rf	Rb	Rp	P	A	AT	E	R2	A	B	C
COMPLEXITE *COMPLEXITY*	3	2	2	1	1	6	1	6	3	1	10	13	3
LOURDEUR *CUMBERSONE PROCEDURES*	13	6	4	4	8	12	3	6	5	1	24	29	9
TOTAL	16	8	6	5	9	18	4	12	8	2	34	42	12
INDICE DE FREQUENCE *INDEX OF FREQUENCY*	1.5	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.7	0.4	1.3	0.9	0.4	1.1	1.6	0.4

Institutions of higher education are complex structures by nature. They are multi-dimensional (teaching, research, other public services). They have to encourage a high degree of specialisation but at the same time facilitate the pooling of knowledge and promote inter-disciplinary activities. They have to provide an environment in which academic freedom can blossom while financing this environment by means of public funds or grants from industry. Their forms are constantly evolving, with layers of history each containing its own style even though functioning in the present. The nature of their activity and their traditions create an environment in which it is difficult to distinguish the boundaries between the organisation proper and the community institution. This complexity is due far more to the nature than to the size of the institution: small institutions carrying out experiments based on inter-relations are often more complex than others several times their size.

It may nevertheless be agreed that the average degree of complexity has developed in recent years for reasons connected with the factors mentioned above. As we have pointed out, the diversification of functions has led to a great increase in both internal ramifications and external interactions. University legislation has become more precise and more detailed and is not always easy to interpret. Furthermore, it is still subject to frequent modification even today. Other legislation, e.g. on safety and staff, has grown into a particularly complex system. Relations between staff and management have become codified in various forms which are standard to many institutions, while the participation of staff in decision-making with all its direct and indirect effects has given a new dimension to most areas of management.

The main consequences of this increased complexity seem to us to be that:

- the management of institutions take up a great deal of time and energy for results that are rarely direct (i.e. they do not directly enhance the quality of decisions or the relevance of teaching and research activities). The pressure on decision-makers is such that they are no longer able to view their action in sufficient perspective;
- university government is becoming a business for specialists and this in turn tends to increase complexity even further: the term "technocracy" is heard increasingly often;
- technology can help to cope with complexity but can also be a complicating factor, as was briefly demonstrated in section 3.3;
- this growing complexity causes disaffection among the rank and file who no longer understand the ins and outs of decisions or non-decisions. The result is that internal communication becomes increasingly crucial but also increasingly difficult;
- the volume of legal activity, whether in the form of consultation, conciliation or court cases, is expanding every day.

The growth of complexity is closely bound up with the problems involved in the cohesion of institutions. Before 1968 universities seems to function in accordance with a more or less implicit consensus. Today, conflicts have become more explicit, ideological disputes have emerged into the open and the struggle to defend sectional interests has become more acute, particularly because of the scarcity of resources. This development is probably most marked in the universities which, because of their history, location, outlook or, in the case of younger institutions, the particular objectives assigned to them, functioned until recently on the basis of a deep-rooted consensus. For them, as indeed for the others, the problem is to find new styles of action preserving unity without sacrificing diversity.

VITESSE DE PRISE DE DECISION : OPINIONS SUR L'EVOLUTION DEPUIS 1968

SPEED OF DECISION : OPINIONS ON THE EVOLUTION SINCE 1968

		S	N	DK	IR	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT
1. Augmentation très significative	NB	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Very sigbificant increase	%	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
2. Augmentation significative	NB	-	-	3	-	-	3	3	7	-	10	-	3	-	6.5	9.5	22.5
Significant increase	%	-	-	23	-	-	2	9	15	-	8	-	11	-	19	9	6
3. Légère augmentation	NB	-	8	2	1	4	15	4	24	10	38	2	6	3	6.5	17.5	70.5
Slight increase	%	-	33	15	4	9	12	13	50	25	32	11	21	13	19	17	20
4. Peu de changement	NB	12	3	5	2	12	34	5	16	11	32	6	7	9	6	28	94
Little change	%	55	12	39	8	27	26	16	33	27	27	31	25	27	18	26	27
5. Légère diminution	NB	5	10	2	20	21	59	4	1	18	23	3	6.5	5	7.5	22	104
Slight decrease	%	27	43	15	80	47	46	12	2	45	19	16	23	21	22	21	30
6. Diminution significative	NB	4	3	1	2	7	17	15	-	1	16	6	4.5	6	7.5	24	57
Significant decrease	%	18	12	8	8	15	13	47	-	3	13	31	16	25	22	23	16
7. Diminution très significative	NB	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	2	1	1	-	4	5
Very significant decrease	%	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-	-	-	11	4	4	-	4	1
TOTAL	NB	22	24	13	25	45	129	32	48	40	120	19	28	24	34	105	354

TEMPS CONSACRE A LA DECISION : OPINIONS SUR L'EVOLUTION DEPUIS 1968

TIME SPENT ON DECISION MAKING : OPINIONS ON THE EVOLUTION SINCE 1968

		S	N	DK	IR	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT
1. Augmentation très significative	Nb	-	-	-	-	4	4	6	2	-	8	2	4	2	1	9	21
Very significant increase	%	-	-	-	-	3	3	19	4	-	7	10	13	7	3	8	6
2. Augmentation significative	Nb	11	8	2	8	17	46	16	9	15	40	6.5	14	15	12	47.5	133.5
Significant increase	%	50	34	15	32	37	36	50	19	38	33	31	48	55	39	44	37
3. Légère augmentation	NB	9	7	3	9	12	40	3	27	16	46	4	7	4	9	24	110
Slight increase	%	41	30	23	36	27	31	9	56	40	38	19	23	15	29	22	31
4. Peu de changement	NB	2	2	5	8	9	26	4	9	5	18	6.5	3	5	5	19.5	63.5
Little change	%	9	8	39	32	20	20	13	19	12	15	31	10	19	16	18	18
5. Légère diminution	NB	-	7	3	-	3	13	3	-	4	7	0.5	1	1	3	5.5	25.5
Slight decrease	%	-	30	23	-	7	10	9	-	10	6	2	3	4	10	5	7
6. Diminution significative	NB	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1.5	1	-	1	3.5	4.5
Significant decrease	%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	7	3	-	3	3	1
7. Diminution très significative	NB	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Very significant decrease	%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	NB	22	24	13	25	45	129	32	48	40	120	21	30	27	31	109	358

Does complexity depend on size? The US report dwells on the relative nature of this link. The other reports confirm this opinion, as it is not in the large universities that the problem of size is most often cited. It seems that the problem arises above all when rapid growth requires changes in management and these changes cannot be given immediate effect.

4. LINES OF ACTION

4.1 PRIORITY TO THE BASIC UNITS

Looking at the situation closely, if the universities are to remain capable of initiative and personality in the face of future competition, it will ultimately be due to their basic units. It is these units that will in fact play the essential role from finding markets to fulfilling contracts. Unless they are open-minded and enterprising there can be no productive contact with the outside world; unless they are efficient their efforts will not be rewarded. It would therefore be useless to strengthen the powers of these institutions if that were to the detriment of their basic units, which are the main source of vitality in the universities. One of the main roles of the university institutions will in fact be to foster these units and to endow them with the appropriate status and facilities.

Placing the stress on a certain autonomy in the management of the basic units and thus ensuring essential flexibility at the very foundations of the university would be a palliative to any top-heaviness resulting from the increased complexity mentioned above, and at the same time a way of increasing flexibility without sacrificing participation (it will be noted that in the United States report, giving strong prerogatives to the departments is considered to be a powerful means of participation).

The central authorities of each institution must therefore cast off any inclination towards hyper-centralisation or technocracy and consider it their primary task to provide their basic components with a framework to facilitate their work and initiative. The central authorities should:

- take over general external negotiations, either to pass on initiatives from the basic units, or to extend a protective wing over them;
- give the basic units a status of their own conducive to initiative and efficiency;
- organise the vertical coherence of the institution, ensuring that the basic units are not stifled by intermediate structures;
- pay particular attention to the procedures for allocating resources within the institution;
- ensure that overall strategy methodically integrates the strategies of the basic units;
- facilitate the activity of the basic units by every possible means: eliminate unnecessary controls; ensure that administrative planning is geared to the basic units.

We would suggest four ways of giving priority to the basic units.

(a) Development of management at the base

When all is said and done, the basic units are small or medium-sized enterprises of a very special type. Certain of their activities are in the nature of a public service; others are purely and simply examples of free enterprise; others again are performed for public authorities, but on a contract basis. On the one hand (and particularly in their contribution to teaching programmes) the basic units have to allow for organised superstructures, and above

all the universities which condition their activities; on the other hand they are virtually autonomous in certain areas. A considerable share of their resources comes from the state via a series of allocations; another share, sometimes substantial, results from their own contractual relations. These two types of resource are often utilised in an extricably interwoven fashion. Finally, they have to observe numerous administrative regulations which result from their relations (direct or indirect) with the state, the university and the numerous intermediate bodies, although they sometimes have considerable areas of freedom for their external activities.

University tradition seems to think that the people responsible for these basic units have an innate gift for handling this complex organisation. By contrast, we consider that this basic management constitutes an important field for reflection, exchange of experience and training. Amongst the many topics which might be considered in this context we would cite: pre-requisites for the viability of a unit; its financial stability; its psychological and educational dynamics; the definition of its "strategies"; the search for outlets; the negotiation, execution and management of contracts.

(b) Moderation in controls and surveys

When one is preoccupied with high-level management, the problem of controls and surveys may appear minor. This may well be so, below a certain threshold. When it becomes too apparent, however, it is a sign that something is wrong. The fault may lie with authority which tends to step up formal controls if it does not feel confident on the essentials, or with the administration information services, forced to find additional channels when their ordinary procedures cannot be adapted sufficiently quickly to management requirements. The central services are not the only ones to suffer from this additional burden; the basic units are very often the focal point of this quest for information. The state, the university and the faculty all collect similar information for their own ends, in related but never totally compatible forms, imposing on the goodwill of those responsible for the basic units. It is essential that the quality of management in an institution should not be confused with the quantity of documents flowing from the base.

(c) Flexibility of central administrative instruments

Each of the central services of a university is, of course, subject to its own imperatives. For example, a financial service has to observe the general rules of accounting and other procedures proper to all financial management; it must comply with the controls and information requirements of various government departments; it must provide the university authorities with all the financial statements or situation reports they require in order to make decisions or to check the effects of past decisions. This certainly constitutes a crushing burden of work, but despite these requirements, it would be unfortunate if it were forgotten that the final aim of these flows of money and information is to enable teaching, research and other activities directly serving the community to proceed under optimum conditions and that the practical link between ends and means is generally to be found at basic unit level.

It is therefore possible to outline a standard expenditure procedure which will encourage the maximum efficiency of basic units: before the start of each financial year each unit will know the appropriations available for the year; it will be free to allocate them as it thinks fit amongst the activities for which it is responsible; it will be able to split them up at will into "subsidiary accounts" which will then be separately managed by the central service; it will be free to make transfers between subsidiary accounts at any time during the year; it will have the power to make any expenditure provided that the total allocation is not exceeded; any sums left over at the end of one year will be automatically carried over to the next; during the year it will receive regular detailed statements of its accounts, etc.

Each administrative procedure should above all be shaped by a proper understanding of the management requirements of the basic units. Any consideration running counter to this should be subjected to ruthless examination.

(d) Special services

Being part of a university should therefore not solely entail disadvantages for a basic unit. Apart from the ordinary basic services, it may expect its institution to set up services to facilitate certain very specific activities. We have seen such services in the following fields: seeking and negotiating public funds: the re-allocation of profits resulting from contract work; marketing research results in various forms; contacts relating to continuing education; "research parks" near to universities.

If these services are to be successful they will have to solve some very delicate problems: possible overlapping with the unit's own contacts; the adoption of an appropriate legal form; the difficulty of reconciling speed and enterprise with the necessary impartiality between different units; the units' suspicion of services which may well cause them to lose one or other of their contracts. They can, however, if well planned and run, lead to notable and rewarding results.

4.2 PERSONALITY

It is not our intention, however, to reduce a country's university system to a vast federation of basic units: the university itself must come into the picture. Where more or less independent faculties with direct links to the public authorities still existed, legislation and practice have tended in the course of the last ten years to give or restore more power to the universities, taking it away from their component parts (as has been the case in particular in France). The authority of institutions over their component parts remains very variable nevertheless, as is shown in the US report. We would add that the unity of institutions and the "vertical" balance of power is a matter of frequent concern in European universities.

L'EQUILIBRE "VERTICAL" DES POUVOIRS : ANALYSE DES OPINIONS
"VERTICAL" BALANCE OF POWER : ANALYSIS OF OPINIONS

2.5% des problèmes mentionnés sont liés à cet équilibre.
2.5% of the problems mentioned are related to this balance of power

	PAR PAYS ET ZONES *BY COUNTRIES AND AREAS*																PAR PERSONNE INTERROGEE *BY TYPE OF RESPONDENT*										PAR QUESTIONS *BY QUESTIONS*		
	S	N	DK	IR	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT	Ci	Ca	Rf	Rb	Rp	P	A	AT	E	R2	A	B	C
NB	5	10	5	6	15	41	3	6	6	15	3	9	7	2	21	77	9	12	3	1	7	12	9	10	6	8	29	16	32
INDICES DE FREQUENCE *INDEX OF FREQUENCY*	0.8	1.5	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.2	0.6	0.7	1.4	0.9	0.6	0.2	0.9	0.3	0.8		0.9	1.2	0.4	0.2	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.3	0.7	1.9	1.0	0.7	1.2

Explications: voir pages 4 et 10.
Explanations: see pages 4 and 10.

One role of the university is to provide a place with which different groups of people can identify (students, teachers, auxiliary staff). This place is extremely important as regards management:

- its size gives it negotiating strength vis-à-vis the outside world which its components parts could never have;
- it enables resources and services to be pooled with resulting economies of scale and hence a certain optimisation;
- the university is big enough to maintain sufficient diversity within itself to be a source of enrichment to its members and a guarantee in the eyes of the outside world (the state and other "clients");
- it enables the basic units to be co-ordinated at a fairly effective intermediate level.

In order to fulfil its role, this place of identification must however be endowed with sufficient personality based on tradition and a specific vocation and strengthened by having powers of its own. But as we pointed out above (cf. 3.4) it is precisely this power which is tending to become weaker in European universities under the influence of various factors.

(a) The role of the state

The national characteristics of university systems inevitably tend to create a certain uniformity. It is therefore important to encourage an atmosphere in which diversity can flourish. Personality and diversity are moreover related to the sense of responsibility which exists when an institution has a certain degree of freedom in the choice of the structure of its management and administration. Another advantage is the degree of choice which diversity offers to the university's clients. Yet a further advantage is that the diversity of a system tends to increase its resilience. Diversity also enables limited experiments with regard to structures, procedures, etc. to be carried out without the need to apply them straight away to the whole of the system. The existence of differences based on history, local circumstances and institutional choices within a common framework of financial standards and public accountability is thus to be considered one of the strengths of higher education systems.

But it is necessary that institutions be given sufficient control over the utilisation of their resources. There is no doubt that the quest for a new equilibrium between control and

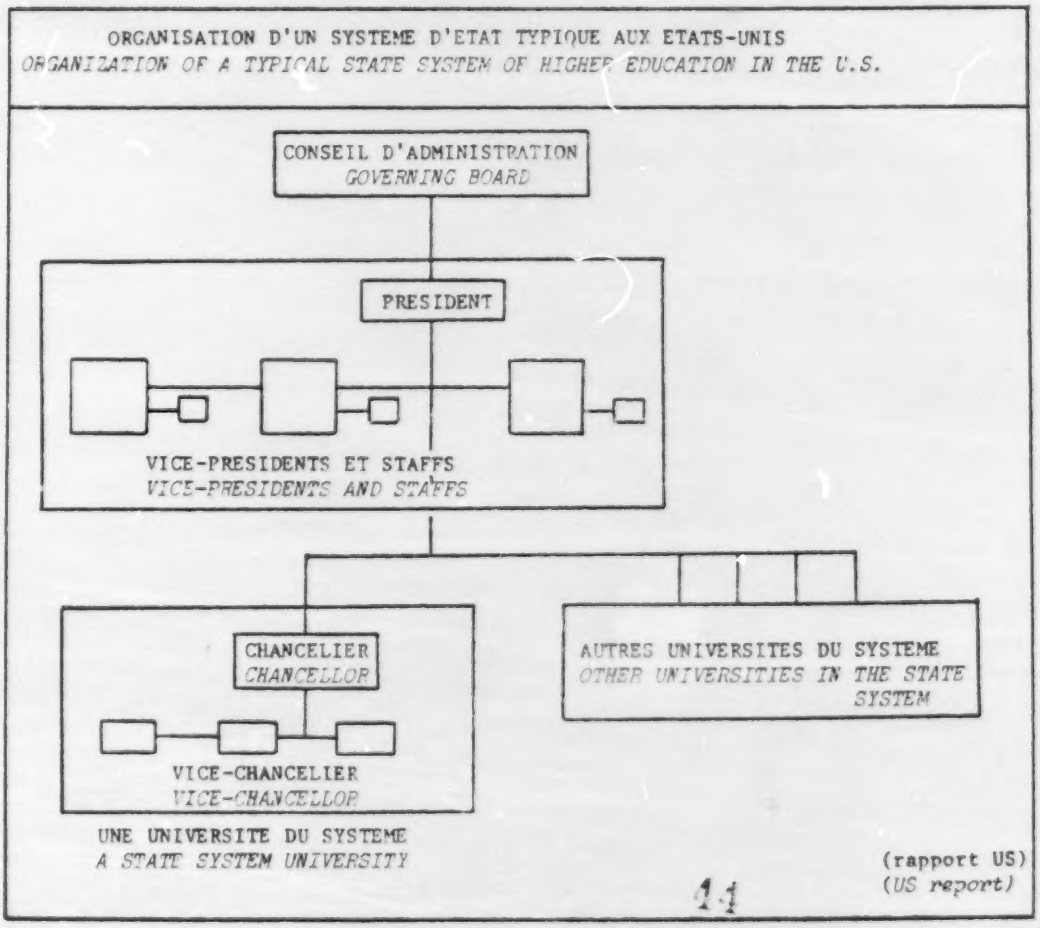
freedom, which will ensure a better university-public authority interface with society, is a major task for the next few years.

Under the heading of control over resources, a very sensitive area in many countries is that of staff. Where the institution has no power to create posts, or modify their nature, or choose its staff, or exert a decisive influence on their careers, it lacks a capacity for reward which is essential for exercising real power. This disappearance from institutions of all prerogatives in this respect, even though it may result from a concern for social equality or fear of a plethora of promotions, would seem to constitute one of the most serious threats to the future vitality of universities.

(b) The existence of intermediate bodies

Another way of developing the personality of institutions is to let them grow under the shelter of "umbrella organisations" which may be divided into two categories.

- In the majority of countries there is a conference of university rectors, vice-chancellors and/or presidents. These bodies are rarely endowed with real decision-making powers, tending to specialise more in collective negotiation with the public authority. In the United Kingdom, however, the universities have voluntarily delegated certain powers to them, such as the administration of student admissions, study information, negotiations relating to employment, etc., each of these areas being handled by an appropriate committee. A similar development is probably taking place in Belgium, especially in the Flemish-speaking area.



- The public authorities can also set up regional bodies (or national bodies in small countries). If such schemes settle the problem of scale at least, it is by no means certain that they are conducive to the development of the personality of institutions: the US report shows that the proliferation of "state systems" does not foster university autonomy. It is perhaps Sweden which has opted most clearly for regionalisation with the constitution of regional university councils. It will be remembered that French legislation provides for such councils, but they have never been set up, mainly because of political obstacles.

(c) Certain types of procedures can also favour the personality of institutions. The Netherlands model, of recent origin, appears very interesting in this respect: the State enters into five-year agreements with institutions with respect to resources and objectives. But this system could be compromised by the necessity for sharp reductions in the state budget.

(d) The US report puts forward the idea that private institutions in the United States (over which a Supreme Court judgement of 1819 explicitly limits state control) act as a protective barrier against the intervention of the public authorities in state institutions. Private institutions of this kind play virtually no such role in Europe. On the other hand, the existence of certain "freer" systems (the universities of the United Kingdom and to some extent of Ireland, the Free Belgian and Netherlands institutions and the free Italian universities) may have a similar influence. It is important for all European universities that such systems continue to demonstrate their vitality and their capacity to provide an appropriate response to current problems.

4.3 INTERNAL STRUCTURES OF INSTITUTIONS

Because of the factors of change described in Chapter 3, it seems to us that the internal structures of institutions have to face three fundamental tasks in coming years.

(a) Ensuring external credibility

As we have seen above, this task is difficult when authority bases its legitimacy on purely internal factors and the criteria for success and also failure are uncertain. In order to ensure external credibility and reinforce the "university's links with society" representatives of the public authorities and "economic, cultural and civic" circles have been brought into the main managing bodies of the majority of European institutions. In certain cases they represent only a small minority, but this does not always exclude a major role.

In other cases, these representatives form a clear majority as in the university councils in the United Kingdom (after the pattern of the governing boards in the United States), whose powerful balancing role the US report rightly mentions, affording the institution autonomy (because these persons identify with the institution) and also the confidence of the public authorities. In certain cases, however, the fear has been expressed that these external figures are a new threat to the independence of the universities (Denmark).

Certain universities are also supervised by what might be called a "high-level" external body which comprises a majority of persons outside the university exercising predominant authority in a number of areas, but which generally meets infrequently. It may be either independent (Louvain, Trento) or dependent on the state (ETH-Zürich , Basel, certain regional councils).

Inviting non-university figures to participate in internal bodies or reinforcing their participation and thus creating "high-level external" bodies might be an effective way of establishing a new balance of power vis-à-vis both external and internal forces in several countries.

(b) Balancing staff participation and executive responsibility

Without wishing to minimise the disinterested attitude which many representatives of different categories of staff individually possess, or denying their constructive outlook on university development, it nevertheless has to be said that quite naturally their main concern as representatives is most often to defend the interests of their electorate. It is thus important that there should exist within the institutions a sufficiently independent source of power to promote the objectives of the institution. This tension seems to be inevitable in the present organisation of our societies. We have seen (cf. 3.5) that "participation" does not seem to have achieved a satisfactory equilibrium in the majority of institutions: it all too often entails cumbersome and paralysing procedures, so that real power slips through its hands. In the face of this situation a tendency to strengthen executive power is to be observed virtually everywhere.

In European universities the power is fairly seldom personalised as can be the case with university Presidents in the United States (although the US report notes a certain erosion in this respect). In any event, the systems are based on the power of collective bodies rather than on individual authority, which does not prevent strong personal authority from being built up in certain institutions for various personal or historic reasons, but its impact is reduced by the fact that tenure of office is relatively short.

On the other hand, we are witnessing a reinforcement of the powers of executive teams. These often consist at the outset of a dual team formed by the head of the institution and the head of administration (in Sweden this combination is officialised as the "Rector's Office") but increasingly tend to bring in specialised vice-presidents whose role is becoming more and more significant.

An active system of committees, especially if extensive powers are delegated to them, is also likely to reinforce executive power. Such systems seem to be much more active in the United Kingdom and Scandinavia than in other areas of Europe.

RELATION ENTRE PERSONNES ET ORGANES COLLECTIFS DANS LES ORGANIGRAMMES.
RELATIONS BETWEEN OFFICERS AND COMMITEES IN THE ORGANISATIONAL CHARTS.

CAS 1. LE CHEF DE L'INSTITUTION EST EN POSITION SUPERIEURE.
CASE 1: THE HEAD OF THE INSTITUTION IS AT HIGHEST LEVEL

Italie — France

CAS 2. LE CHEF DE L'INSTITUTION EST AU MEME NIVEAU.
CASE 2. THE HEAD OF THE INSTITUTION IS AT THE SAME LEVEL.

Certaines institutions en Allemagne fédérale et Autriche.
Some institutions in the Federal Republic of Germany, and Austria.

CAS 3. LE CHEF DE L'INSTITUTION N'APPARAIT PAS DANS L'ORGANIGRAMME.
CASE 3. THE HEAD OF THE INSTITUTION DOES NOT APPEAR IN THE ORGANISATIONAL CHART.

Area A.
Belgique.

AUTRES CAS. LE CHEF DE L'INSTITUTION APPARAIT COMME PRESIDENT, MEMBRE OU EXECUTIF D'UN ORGANE COLLECTIF.
OTHER CASE. THE HEAD OF THE INSTITUTION APPEARS AS CHAIRMAN, MEMBER OR EXECUTIVE OFFICER OF A BODY.

The deans of faculties or heads of other units, who also exercise real executive responsibility at their own level, can carry great weight to the same effect where they are associated with central decisions through appropriate bodies.

A strengthening of the executive on these lines should in particular prevent its influence from being curbed by any "legislative authority", which, although representative, is composed of persons who have neither the responsibility nor the time to take real charge of day-to-day management. It is the executive bodies, acting on behalf of all parties, who ensure coherence in the implementation of the measures adopted, after a preparatory stage often involving conflict. To take away their freedom of manoeuvre would be catastrophic in its paralysing effect.

POURCENTAGE DE DECISIONS PRISES EN PRATIQUE PAR DES COMMISSIONS CENTRALES, PLUTOT QUE PAR UN ORGANE DIRECTEUR.
PERCENTAGE OF DECISIONS TAKEN "EFFECTIVELY" BY CENTRAL COMMITTEES RATHER THAN BY A DIRECTING BODY.

S	4%	UK/UNI	0%	A	4%
N	26%	UL/POLY	24%	B	0%
DK	26%	NL	1%	CH	0%
IR	2%	D	13%	F	0%
				I	0%

It is still necessary to man these executive bodies with experienced generalists who understand at the same time the nature of their institution and the nature of management. They first have to be found, which presupposes that the task is sufficiently rewarding. It is also necessary to train them, and it is well known that the majority of academics are not a priori managers, which raises an important credibility problem. Finally, it is necessary to give them a chance to remain for some time; in this respect election procedures must be regarded with some misgiving, for if they have the advantage of preventing too great a development of personal power, this is at the risk of unduly sacrificing continuity (the Rector's term of office has been extended in Germany and Austria). Continuity is the only way to enable the executive to impose its will on the administrative services.

(c) Organising vertical coherence

We have argued above for a strengthening of both the basic units and of the personality of universities. Between these two extremes, the position of the intermediate structures ("faculties", "teaching and research units", "divisions", etc.) is very delicate. In this regard there are two symmetrical temptations: to centre management on the intermediate structures (i.e. allow them to monopolise power at the cost of a certain persecution of the basic units and a constant struggle against the central authority) or divest them of all power for the benefit of the base and the centre, thus reducing them to the status of mere practical administrative mechanisms. In the A and B area reports, it is particularly the first tendency which seems to be feared: they stress the difficulty of keeping people interested in the institution as a whole rather than its component parts. It is probable that reinforcing the prerogatives of intermediate structures is only conceivable where there is a strong and well organised central power which, through its own macro-decisions, is able to offer a coherent framework for proposals or decisions from the base.

The structure itself may have a varying pattern at its different levels. The simplest traditional model has a central level, an intermediate level (often called "faculty") and a basic level which may be given very different names in different countries. This traditional vertical model is elaborated in certain cases by grouping faculties into two or three "sectors" and/or dividing basic units into subunits, which may lead to purely vertical structures with five levels. In this model the intermediate level is generally responsible for organising teaching

programmes, while research rather tends to be assigned to basic units, though not without a certain degree of co-ordination through the intermediate structures. However, a number of variants have been brought to this traditional model.

The first variant results from a short-circuiting process: in a certain number of areas a direct link is established with the basic units. This system is followed very clearly at Antwerp and ETH-Zürich where it is mainly research that is handled directly with the basic unit, although the latter remains formally subordinate to the intermediate bodies.

A second variant is an addition: when the divisions between intermediate structures do not really suit certain areas of decision-making, such decisions may well be entrusted to parallel bodies. This is the case with the "Commissions de spécialistes" in France, which draw up proposals for the appointment and promotion of teaching staff. It may also the case for the bodies responsible for teaching programmes, as can be seen at Paris VI.

The third variant is more radical: it results from the separation between research and teaching structures. For example, in Denmark the centre is in direct touch with the departments which are the real constituent parts of the university, while teaching programmes are co-ordinated by "study boards".

To combat disciplinary stereotyping and the resulting rigidity, certain universities have set up working procedures to favour inter-disciplinary initiative, as is the case with the University of Sussex.

In most cases the new significance of intermediate structures results from the way in which resources are distributed internally and the availability at intermediate level of an administrative infrastructure which has adequately qualified staff and is sufficiently independent of the central administration (an increase has been noted in recent years in areas B and C, while this trend seems to have made an earlier appearance in part of area A).

4.4. THE UNIVERSITY - A SYSTEM OF HUMAN INTERACTION

(a) Human resources

The problem of human resources is vital and is the subject of considerable concern in areas A and C. The main reason is that:

- in present circumstances the university has a great need of mobility and enterprise and this presupposes considerable motivation, experience and flexibility on the part of the staff,
- whereas there are many factors which make for rigidity:
  - . ageing of staff, both administrative and academic,
  - . blocking of careers, with the attendant risk of discouragement, disinvestment and a decline in the standard of work,
  - . defensive reactions of staff in the face of an uncertain future.

In addition there are the possible consequences of any reduction in working hours and the changes in the relations between staff and management.

LE PERSONNEL COMME PROBLEME : SYNTHESE DES OPINIONS
PERSONNEL AS A PROBLEM : SUMMARY OF OPINIONS

PROBLEMES CONCERNANT: / *PROBLEMS CONCERNING:*		PAR PAYS ET PAR ZONES / *BY COUNTRY AND AREA*																	
		S	N	DK	IR	UK/U	UK/P	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT
TOUTES CATEGORIES / *ALL CATEGORIES*	NB	17	18	8	26	27	7	34	103	10	17	1	29	9	16	13	15	53	185
PERSONNEL ENSEIGNANT / *TEACHING STAFF*	NB	7	1	4	6	15	7	22	40	4	2	-	6	1	6	21	12	40	86
PROFESSEURS / *PROFESSORS*	NB	6	4	-	1	2	-	2	13	3	-	-	3	2	4	-	7	13	29
ASSISTANTS / *LECTURERS*	NB	6	4	-	2	1	2	3	15	1	6	2	9	10	6	3	1	20	44
PERSONNEL AUXILIAIRE / *AUXILIARY STAFF*	NB	-	3	-	8	6	9	15	26	-	8	11	19	6	2	17	16	41	86
TOTAL		36	30	12	43	51	25	76	197	18	33	15	66	28	34	54	51	167	430
Indice de fréquence / *Index of frequency*		1.0	0.8	0.6	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2		

= 14% des réponses / *of the responses*

PROBLEMES CONCERNANT: / *PROBLEMS CONCERNING:*		PAR PERSONNE INTERROGEE / *BY CATEGORIES OF RESPONDENTS*										PAR QUESTIONS / *BY QUESTIONS*		
		Ci	Ca	Rf	Rb	Rp	P	A	AT	E	R2	A	B	C
TOUTES CATEGORIES / *ALL CATEGORIES*	NB	17	27	23	15	11	10	22	46	11	3	46	90	49
	Ind						0.4	1.0	2.4					
PERSONNEL ENSEIGNANT / *TEACHING STAFF*	NB	12	10	2	1	5	19	21	4	3	9	37	32	17
	Ind						1.8	2.1						
PROFESSEURS / *PROFESSORS*	NB	5	2	2	-	2	9	3	1	1	4	8	13	8
	Ind						2.6							
ASSISTANTS / *LECTURERS*	NB	1	3	1	-	1	4	26	4	3	1	10	24	10
	Ind							5.2						
PERSONNEL AUXILIAIRE / *AUXILIARY STAFF*	NB	2	13	6	17	10	2	7	25	3	1	21	40	25
	Ind								2.9					
TOTAL	NB	27	55	34	33	29	44	79	80	21	18	122	239	109
Indice de fréquence / *Index of frequency*		0.5	1.0	0.8	1.1	0.8	0.8	1.6	1.8	0.5	0.8	0.8	1.9	0.7

Explications: voir pages 4 et 10.
Explanations: see pages 4 and 10.

The following action should be recommended:

- provide the universities with the facilities to offer adequate incentives, whether they be material, intellectual or psycho-social; one of the first objectives should be to avoid the injustice of maintaining persons with real responsibility in lower grades;
- seriously consider releasing a number of senior officials or foster external mobility in order to make room for younger people and preserve adequate opportunities of institutional change;
- ensure the widespread acceptance of internal mobility both by teaching staff and administrative and technical personnel, through training schemes, mobility of administrative function and the general practice of sabbatical years; by these measures it should be possible to train teaching staff for management positions or, where appropriate, effective redeployment towards sectors where demand is increasing; mobility also constitutes a solution to the problem of contractual staff who are by definition dependent on short-term projects;

- on the administrative side at all levels: diversify skills, learn foreign languages, attend international or national conferences, undergo real training in management as specifically applied to universities.

The university has always been centred on people; whether they be students, researchers or teachers, the university mainly invests in men and women, for its reputation, its efficiency and the quality of its management depend on them. Up to now this investment has been a natural process but in view of the constraints of the present situation a more organised effort is necessary.

(b) The human element in the management of institutions

At the beginning of the seventies it was still the rational and deductive model which was dominant in the methodological approach to university management. Various extensive experiments in its application could still be observed in Europe and especially in the United States. Today, both in theory and practice, the pendulum seems to have swung towards a more political view of things. In the first place, the university environment proved allergic to the rational model, especially in certain disciplines. Secondly, it was soon seen - if there were ever any doubt - that the management of a university could not be reduced to rational calculation. The human, relational and political factor has come into its own again: the contribution of John DAVIES at the Zürich Seminar (1), in September 1979, strikingly underlined this important switch in thinking. Below we list some of the particular needs brought out by our visits in this respect.

- Internal communication
- Conflict management. The emergence of a conflict reveals latent tensions: it is the manifestation of a problem situation and brings the opposing forces to light. Partial analysis, premature conclusions, lordly disdain or superficial compromise are sure ways of missing an opportunity to make progress.
- The functioning of meetings. Little more than the simplest notions of group dynamics have penetrated the university environment. The ineffectualness of meetings - almost unanimously condemned by our respondents - is one of the most important reasons for the dissocation between "political" and "technical" management. And yet it is precisely through meetings that excellent opportunities are offered to enable the relational and the rational to co-exist.
- A macroscopic outlook. In the diversified institution a university represents, there is a considerable risk of failing to see the whole issue, never getting beyond specific cases and thus gravely truncating the analysis of a situation.
- The management of time is often ill-conceived: the reaction times of individuals and structures are often badly estimated when procedures are being planned.

---

(1) J. DAVIES, "The political context of planning and policy-making in the contemporary higher education institution", OECD/CERI, September 1979.

4.5 ACCOUNTABILITY

(a) There is little doubt that the increased scale of higher education and the current state of national economies have led to increased public accountability in the restricted sense of the term, i.e. the submission of accounts to parliament. Various national reforms have tended to clarify the presentation of these accounts, extend the role of the controllers acting on behalf of parliament, place certain financial services under the direct control of the public authorities, increase the flow of financial information to the government or limit the freedom of transfer of funds from one budget item to another.

The opinions of our respondents on the increase in this type of accountability are very diverse. Some deplore the fact that the smaller, relatively inexpensive and hitherto untroubled institutions have had as a result to give up the confidential procedures they were hoping to maintain despite the developments of the seventies, but the majority recognise the legitimacy of this requirement and the need for institutions to respond positively. On the whole the problems that arise concern means rather than ends.

The most widespread criticism is aimed at the futility of strict controls and the collection of information: the accounting process in itself diverts to "bureaucracy" designed for productive activities and restricts initiatives which could enable the institution to increase its efficiency. The main difficulty thus seems to lie in finding ways of providing the state (whether it be the parliament, the government or the minister) with the information and controls it requires without creating unprofitable, over-elaborate or over-restrictive mechanisms. The existence of bodies such as the "University Grants Committee" in the United Kingdom or the "Higher Education Authority" in Ireland seems to provide a partial answer. Similarly, the use of broader standards of control in budgetary matters at a national level seems to provide another part of the answer (for example, if institution X remains within the acceptable limits for expenditure per student or per teacher, etc., is it necessary for it to obtain the approval of the minister to modify the allocation of a small sum of money?).

(b) However, in a broader sense, the term "public accountability" also involves the institution's self-justification to society. The demand for such justification has increased considerably in the course of the past ten years, because of the rapid expansion of the sixties, the growing economic importance of higher education and the political troubles of 1968 and 1969. During the first half of this period, compliance with this requirement was generally felt to be a tiresome chore. In the second half of the period (1974-79), the accent has perhaps shifted: the demand from society has disappeared or decreased, while the desire of the institutions to express themselves to the outside world has increased. The reasons for this change are not easy to determine. They include the fact that institutions have increasingly to struggle publicly to maintain their share of resources; in all countries there is the feeling that the decline in the priority given to universities by politicians could be stopped or reversed if the universities present themselves more clearly to wide sections of the public.

OPINIONS A PROPOS DES RELATIONS AVEC LA SOCIETE : 87 réponses (2.8%)
OPINIONS ABOUT RELATIONS WITH SOCIETY : 87 responses (2.8%)

QUELQUES INDICES DE FREQUENCE
SOME INDEXES OF FREQUENCIES

P A Y S *COUNTRIES*				INTERLOCUTEURS *RESPONDENTS*			
ELEVE *HIGH*		FAIBLE *LOW*		ELEVE *HIGH*		FAIBLE *LOW*	
I	(1.9)	S	(0.1)	Ci	(1.9)	Rf	(0.5)
N	(1.5)	A	(0.4)			R2	(0.6)
CH	(1.4)	D	(0.7)			AT	(0.7)
IR	(1.3)						
NL	(1.3)						
Explications: voir pages 4 et 10. *Explanations: see pages 4 and 10.*							

Our respondents clearly feel the need to develop closer relations with regional or civic authorities, industry, professional groups, the media, etc. The increase in the number of university services specialising in information and external relations is an indication of this trend.

Here too, the problem lies more in the choice of methods and means. In addition to the introduction of external members into the governing bodies of institutions, the publication of annual reports on the whole of the university's activities, both qualitative and quantitative, which are widely circulated amongst the public, may be considered an important step towards the realisation of external self-justification in the widest sense.

4.6 MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

(a) Ten years ago, university management techniques were all the rage in responsible circles and, amongst other factors, prompted the creation of the OECD's IMHE Programme. Research was financed on both sides of the Atlantic on deriving theories. Ambitious programmes based on computer techniques and quantitative methods were launched in various institutions where the circumstances were favourable.

These methods and these programmes have now undergone the test of time and, above all, application. The computer has emerged from the realm of myth. Some brilliant creations have collapsed and some constructions have remained half-finished. But elsewhere there are sound schemes at work which are yielding very satisfactory results. It is now time for assessment, sobriety, consolidation. It is also the moment to ensure that management is not reduced to mere technique. Admittedly techniques are indispensable and much undoubtedly remains to be done in this respect in the countries visited. Considerable resources will still have to be devoted to them and recent experiences have shown that this can be done

more judiciously. But it is now easier than it was before to see that they are only part of a whole: through the concept of management, all aspects of the conduct of institutions have now come under criticism, as is very clearly demonstrated by the diversity of subjects brought up by our respondents in response to our request for opinions.

(b) We believe we have shown that the necessary growth of dynamic enterprise alongside their traditional functions called for many changes in the personality, management methods and administration of university institutions. As the nature of their activities is also very special, the universities cannot directly borrow management methods either from the public service or from private enterprise: adaptations and even considerable innovations are necessary. We may note that in the United States, methods, techniques and a vocabulary specific to university management have been amply developed and have spread to some extent to the United Kingdom, Scandinavia, the Netherlands and, more recently, Germany. Furthermore, independent efforts are being attempted on an increasingly large scale in most countries. It nevertheless remains true that in the majority of institutions visited in areas B and C the administratively- and legally-oriented methods traditional in the public service, still predominate. Only too often we can see the tendency to reduce management to administration in its narrowest sense: the application of legislation and compliance on the part of the public service with government directives. This approach just cannot suffice to meet present requirements. It has to be recognised that an immense effort over a period of more than twenty years in the English-speaking countries has resulted in the development of concepts, methods and techniques which are perfectly adapted to the requirements that we have stressed. Elsewhere the effort has been much more sporadic. The necessary critical mass has so far not been reached to create a reservoir of skilled professionals to stimulate adequate research, to ensure the emergence and spread of a suitable language. Either the vocabulary used continues to be legal and administrative or it is the internal jargon peculiar to individual institutions. It is high time to create the structures necessary for this conceptual and methodological development and the dissemination of its results.

In this context, quantitative and formalised methods will obviously have an important part to play. This is not because of any particular obsession with them, but because they are inseparable from contemporary management concepts. Moreover, many experiments have already been completed and can be turned to account by comparing them and drawing general conclusions. It is not a question of resorting to highly sophisticated instruments such as optimisation models, which have not generally become a practical proposition. A pragmatic approach is required: the need is to observe, analyse, apply, perfect and finally extend and generalise. This is precisely what the Americans did. To a large extent we are obliged to retrace the same path but we can draw inspiration from their successes.

Alongside these quantative, formalised methods there are, however, also the human aspects, which we mentioned above.

They find a deep-rooted response in the humanist traditions of the countries visited, but to take them over requires more than just the "human touch" (though this is an essential factor). The operation of complex organisations, over which we still have very inadequate control, has given rise to very specific procedures and these have in turn resulted in methods and techniques which are of infinite help for the functioning of universities.

(c) We shall close this section on management techniques with a few comments on certain particular fields.

- "PPBS" techniques have not spread as far as some observers predicted. There is in fact very little likelihood that they will make much headway in the form in which they have become more or less set. They presuppose a hierarchy and a deductive structure which is not well suited to university management. It is, however, certain that a good many of the ideas conveyed by PPBS have left their mark on university management.
- Thus, the identification of costs remains an ever-present problem in which steady, if slow, progress has been achieved in many of the institutions visited. One of the most spectacular of recent schemes in this field has been developed in Sweden, where the budget presentation was reorganised under headings reflecting the main objectives of the university: first degree courses on the one hand, post-graduate teaching and research on the other.
- Performance indicators are also in the news: we encountered frequent references to the necessity for better checks on the results of activities but we were able to see that actual achievements in this area are extremely rare.
- It is important that the universities should not let themselves be caught unawares by any future technological developments designed to ensure the automation of office procedures and the general application of teleprocessing.
- Following on from the Zürich Seminar of September 1979, the analysis of planning methods in a context of stagnant resources needs to be pushed further. More particularly, attention should be focussed on medium-term budgetary forecasting (i.e. the medium-term impact of current decisions and trends on the balance between resources and expenditure).
- Greater standardisation in the presentation of management data, in a given country or region or even at European level, remains a particularly rewarding long-term objective, with special reference to public accountability. There is no denying, however, that at European level standardisation entails a number of preliminary stages, in particular a much deeper comparative study of the specific features of the various management systems.
- Building and campus management methods are a strategic area at the present time. It is certain that many of these methods are not specific to university management, but given the particular framework in which the methods would have to be applied and their close link with certain aspects of financial management (we are thinking especially of depreciation and/or maintenance costs), it would be profitable to organise detailed exchanges of ideas on this subject as a minimum step.

LES BATIMENTS COMME PROBLEME: 119 REPONSES (3.9%) *BUILDINGS AS A PROBLEM : 119 RESPONSES (3.9%)*			
PAYS *COUNTRIES*		INTERLOCUTEURS *RESPONDENTS*	
FREQUENCE ELEVEE *HIGH FREQUENCY*	FREQUENCE BASSE *LOW FFEQUENCY*	FREQUENCE ELEVEE *HIGH FREQUENCY*	FREQUENCE BASSE *LOW FREQUENCY*
UK/Pol (2.7) F (1.5) I (1.4) IR (1.4)	D (0.2) NL (0.3) A (0.4)	Rb (6.5)	E (0.2) A (0.4) R2 (0.5) Ci, P, AT (0.6)
Explications: voir pages 4 et 10. *Explanations: see pages 4 and 10.*			

- Methods of allocating resources (criteria and models primarily designed to rethink the traditional bases of distribution) and more generally all methods of improving the flexibility of resource allocation and budgetary control are undeniably immediate problems.

4.7 ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES

Most of the trends which have been described or envisaged above are putting considerable pressure on the administrative services of universities. Our survey leads us to stress the following points.

(a) University administration as an intermediary of the state

It is only natural that various administrative operations necessitate direct contact between the central administration of a university and government departments. In certain cases, these contacts become particularly close:

- certain government departments or technical services deal with matters which in other universities are handled internally: salaries (very often), budgets, technical services (also frequent), etc.:
- the head of administration (often appointed by the public authorities) is sometimes totally or partially responsible to the ministry, independently of the head of the institution.

For historical reasons (initial dependency) and because the two administrations share certain legal and administrative problems, these contacts are bound to result in a certain collusion, and this encourages inside pressures in favour of increasing state intervention. The position of the head of administration can become particularly delicate and the balance he maintains between his respect for regulations and his desire for efficiency can be of decisive importance.

CHEF DE L'ADMINISTRATION
HEAD OF ADMINISTRATION

	NOMINATION *APPOINTMENT*		RESPONSABILITE VIS-A-VIS DE *RESPONSABILITY TO*	
	UNIVERSITE *UNIVERSITY*	MINISTERE *MINISTRY*	UNIVERSITE *UNIVERSITY*	MINISTERE *MINISTRY*
S		3	3	
N		3		3
DK		2		2
IR	3			2
UK/Univ.	4		4	
UK/Pol.	1	1	2	
NL		4		
D	2	5		
A		5		
B/Libre *Free*	3		3	
F		7	5.5	1.5
I/Etat *State*		4	2.5	1.5
I/Libre *Free*	2		2	

ADMINISTRATION : 6.2% DES OPINIONS
ADMINISTRATION : 6.2% OF THE OPINIONS

		PAR PAYS ET ZONES *BY COUNTRY AND AREA*																
		S	N	DK	IR	UK /U	UK /P	UK	ZA	NL	D	A	ZB	B	CH	F	I	ZC	TOT
TECHNOCRATIE - RELATIONS AVEC LA VIE ACADEMIQUE - COMPLEXITE - COUT *TECHNOCRACY - RELATIONS WITH ACADEMIC LIFE - COMPLEXITY - COST*	NB	6	3	1	1	3	4	7	18	1	20	21	42	15	10	8	7	40	100
	IND	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.2	2.0	3.7	1.9	2.3	1.3	0.8	0.7	1.2	3.2
AUTRES PROBLEMES *OTHER PROBLEMS*	NB	6	3	2	7	7	2	9	27	1	21	19	41	3	8	4	9	24	92
	IND	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.2	2.2	3.6	2.0	0.5	1.1	0.4	1.0	0.8	3.0
TOTAL	NB	12	6	3	8	10	6	16	45	2	41	40	80	18	18	12	16	64	192
	IND	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.2	2.0	3.6	1.9	1.5	1.2	0.6	0.8	1.0	

ADMINISTRATION : 6.2% DES OPINIONS
ADMINISTRATION : 6.2% OF THE OPINIONS

		PAR PERSONNES INTERROGEES *BY TYPE OF RESPONDENT*										PAR QUESTION *BY QUESTION*		
		Ci	Ca	Rf	Rb	Rp	P	A	AT	E	R2	A	B	C
TECHNOCRATIE - RELATIONS AVEC LA VIE ACADEMIQUE - COMPLEXITE - COUT *TECHNOCRACY - RELATIONS WITH ACADEMIC LIFE - COMPLEXITY - COST*	NB	12	17	7	7	5	19	14	10	5	4	39	31	30
	IND	1.0	1.3	0.7	1.0	0.6	1.6	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.1	0.9
AUTRES PROBLEMES *OTHER PROBLEMS*	NB	2	24	16	7	12	7	6	11	6	1	14	31	47
	IND	0.2	2.0	1.8	1.1	1.5	0.6	0.6	1.2	0.6	0.2	0.4	1.1	1.5
TOTAL	NB	14	41	23	14	17	26	20	21	11	5	53	62	77
	IND	0.6	1.7	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.2

Explications: voir pages 4 et 10.
Explanations: see pages 4 and 10.

(b) The administrative services of the universities visited are at very different stages of development. Thus the number of graduate staff in these services varies from 4 to about 150, an enormous range. This means that the universities can be divided into two categories in this respect:

- universities whose management services are little developed; these are most often institutions in which the central authority is relatively weak; in view of what we have said above, a certain amount of further development is to be recommended in these institutions;
- universities already possessing well developed services, either old-established or recent; we have seen that these universities are more open than others to the charge of "technocracy" by the academic members of the university community.

It is to be noted that the correlation between development and the size of the institution is far from strong. Certain small institutions have a particularly well developed set of services.

(c) In the administrative services of the institutions a certain link can be seen between dependence on the state, the predominance of juridico-administrative techniques, the qualifications of administrative staff and the style of management of the institution. It is always necessary to have this correlation in mind when proposing changes in the style of management, particularly designed to meet the need for economy, better public relations and a more effective relationship between the academic departments and financial management etc.

(d) We carried out a brief examination of the "management workload" (i.e. the number of staff who are directly under the authority of a given superior in the hierarchy) of heads of administration in different institutions. The universities with the most strongly developed administrations at the present time largely owe this development to the growth period of the sixties and early seventies when an increasing number of distinct services were created. The problem that this involved was recognised fairly early in some universities which reorganised these services into broad divisions. This change did not take place in other universities, so that the management workload of the head of administration is considerable. The responses to our open questions enabled various problems resulting from this to be perceived, i.e. overloading of the head of administration, difficulty of access to him, co-ordination problems, lack of team work, lack of contact between services, over-centralisation, etc.

(e) In certain universities the problem arises of the relations between the "political" factor and the administration. One of the manifestations of this problem is the tension frequently observed between staff representatives of different categories ("participation") and the services, which sometimes accuse them of irresponsibility and lack of continuity in proposing "impracticable" measures.

Another problem concerns the relations of the head of administration with the executive body, when the latter begins to expand. In particular, the proliferation of specialist vice-presidents or deputy vice-rectors necessarily creates special links between these executives and certain services of the administration the unity of which may thus be threatened. Since such direct interventions

are inevitable, it is a question of finding a new style of co-ordination for the administration.

All in all, these trends can diminish the role of the head of administration: he ceases to have privileged access to the head of the institution, his room for manoeuvre is reduced by state intervention, some of his prerogatives are taken over by other members of the executive, etc.

(f) Where the management system has been strongly developed, many cases of tension can be observed between the administration and the academics (who tend to complain of "technocracy"). Although management is strongly developed in the United Kingdom, the administration seems better integrated; senior personnel of the administrative officers are significantly styled "administrative staff of status equivalent to academic staff".

(g) The decentralisation of administrative services presents a problem parallel to the decentralisation of decision-making. Tensions can frequently be seen between the central administrative services and those of the component branches of the institution, particularly the intermediate structures (faculties, etc.). There is a whole set of unresolved problems here, which warrant special study.

(h) In conclusion we would mention a number of administrative functions that are more or less new or likely to develop considerably:

- information and public relations services;
- fund-raising services;
- continuing education secretariats;
- services providing information and documentation on courses;
- "institutional research" services (responsible in particular for preparing policies and decisions in various forms ranging from the collection of statistics to the preparation of specific studies);
- secretariats and offices with special responsibility for monitoring the implementation of decisions (a lack of follow-up procedures was frequently mentioned as a serious shortcoming in current management).

The universities do not always have the resources to develop such schemes. Any expansion in the administration must be balanced against the advantages of directly allocating the same resources to teaching or research. The governing bodies of institutions are thus faced with a dilemma that is far from easy to resolve.

5. RECOMMENDATIONS

We shall close this report with a number of recommendations addressed to those responsible for the OECD Programme on Institutional Management in Higher Education (IMHE) and through them, more generally, to the activities of the OECD and its Member states.

(a) Need to devote attention to the relations between public authorities and institutions

Our report confirm, if confirmation is required, that the future of our university systems in the majority of countries calls for a redefinition of the concrete relations between public authorities and institutions. As we have already mentioned, such

a redefinition should not be founded solely on philosophical, political or ideological considerations, but also and above all on the most objective examination possible of the pre-requisites for a management system well adapted to present and future needs, whether they be traditional public service functions or newer functions to enable the university to meet external competition. Because of the emphasis it places on management and the generally very broad significance it gives to this term the IMHE Programme itself, in view of the interest likewise shown in it by the representatives of the institutions and the public services, may constitute a useful forum for the studies and discussions relating to this subject, always provided that the level of membership is sufficiently high in all the countries concerned.

(b) Need to promote comparative studies

Having ourselves been able to carry out, probably for the first time in Europe, an extensive comparative analysis of the management systems used in European universities, we are convinced of the value of such a comparative approach. Any individual phenomenon observed in a country or an institution takes on a new dimension enabling its causes to be traced more easily and the appropriate remedy to be found if necessary when it can be compared to similar phenomena in other countries and seen in its own national or institutional context, the peculiarities of which may themselves also be subjected to comparative analysis. It thus seems to us that the comparative approach is to be recommended for the future; it is in fact not a complete innovation, for we all know the considerable resources the United States have already devoted to studies of this type. But it is clear that by virtue of its role as a precursor, the urgency with which it was carried out, the necessarily wide range of problems it covered because it was a first survey of the field, the relative inexperience of its organisers and the need to split up the work rather than carry out joint studies, the present project can hardly constitute a model. It would be far better to take into account the shortcomings observed in order to improve the technique for the future.

First of all, care must be taken that these valuable and costly studies are successive and cumulative. Without going so far as to advocate a rigid plan, we consider that insofar as they are launched by the IMHE Programme, the studies should adopt a logical approach to subjects, produce documentation which is accessible and detailed, enable medium-term trends to be observed and make systematic use of the material gathered by previous studies. The essential next stage would be to carry the exploitation of the material collected for the present study a step further.

We also consider that the ensuing stages should deal with more limited subjects. In this respect we hope that the present study will save our successors some of the indispensable preliminary work of ascertaining the different institutional frameworks available. It will thus be necessary to deal with a number of more precise, specialised subjects and to try to organise them in a sequence according to a certain overall plan. Each subject must be clearly defined by those responsible for the plan, in order that the researchers do not themselves have to establish frameworks and objectives, and have accurate information about the overall plan before undertaking a particular project.

An overall plan of this type could be partially co-ordinated with the schedule of meetings on special topics organised by the IMHE Programme. This would result in a stimulating cross-fertilisation:

- the preparation of even a modest comparative study on the occasion of a meeting on a special topic would stimulate the theoretical approach to the meeting and provide useful reference material;
- a summary report on the meeting could in its turn be added to the common stock of comparative studies;
- the systematic publication of the comparative studies in the form of high-quality books and documents would enable the general logic of the overall plan mentioned above to be seen more clearly.

Such a prospect would probably call for new resources, such as well co-ordinated documentation, an association of teams interested in the comparative approach and the accumulation of experience in this field, an extention of the programme of meetings on special topics, networks of national contacts enabling documentation to be updated without involving too much travel, etc. We believe that these requirements could in fact be met and that this scheme would offer the IMHE Programme a chance to make the most of its achievements by using them in a new perspective.

(c) List of topics

The present report offers a list of topics which may well prove of strategic importance in the coming years and the IMHE Programme could promote their study in the spirit we have outlined.

At the outset we distinguish a number of general themes we consider to be the most important.

- The subject of university government, already touched upon in the course of previous meetings, could become a permanent sub-topic and open the way to regular studies on specialised subjects. The trends in the functions of the executive authority in universities could be given priority. Other subjects which might follow are staff participation, vertical equilibrium and the role of leading figures from outside the university.
- The problems of personnel management (recruiting, careers, terms of employment, training, evaluation, etc.) are becoming particularly urgent. For both administrative and teaching staff it would be well to secure a better knowledge (through a comparative approach) of the systems in force in the different countries and review the problems currently encountered and the solutions adopted.
- Accountability might be a subject for special studies. For example, an ideal reporting system could be drawn up at European level. It could include certain indicators relating to the management system, such as those used in the present study.
- The systematic examination of the strategy components of an institution (choice of objectives, judicious allocation of functions, attempt to determine a profile, reconciliation of free enterprise and public service, etc.) might usefully be investigated and discussed.

- Management of teaching and research and management of basic units are also two subjects of strategic importance.

(d) We would now draw attention to some specialised topics:

- the spirit of initiative in general
- internal and external information
- management and financing of student services
- forecasts of student numbers and their implications for the size of institutions and the nature of their curricula
- unionisation and the role of the unions in the universities
- methods of controlling and co-ordinating administrative services
- buildings and campuses (maintenance, economies, safety arrangements, automation, depreciation and maintenance financing, etc.)
- technological transfer from university to industry and public services
- quantitative and formalised methods (which could be subdivided into a series of very specialised topics)
- budget preparation and medium-term budget forecasting
- data-processing in general, exchange of university management software and the probable impact of tele-processing and new office technology
- relations between universities and teaching hospitals.

We do not intend to propose priorities amongst these topics; the order in which they might be treated will probably be more a question of opportunity and available resources.

(e) Languages

It has become clear to us that in at least two countries (Italy and Germany), limiting the publication of IMHE studies to English and French puts a considerable brake on the dissemination of ideas, methods and techniques relating to university management. As the IMHE Programme could hardly take the initiative of expanding the list of languages it uses, would it not be possible, with the aid and sponsorship of the public authorities, to establish a decentralised office in these countries able to serve as a link between the Programme and the country's institutions? This office could at very least play a disseminating role by translating (in both directions!) the most important documents relating to university management.

We would remind the reader that in the area reports he will find not only details of the information collected but also the general thinking of the teams with respect to institutional management in the different countries visited.

ANNEX 1

PROJECT STEERING GROUP

AUSTRIA:	Othmar Köckinger Universitätsdirektor Universität Linz
BELGIUM:	Guido Declercq General Administrator Katholieke Universiteit Leuven
DENMARK:	Paul Carpentier Head of Administration The Technical University of Denmark
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY:	Eduard Gaugler Professor Universität Mannheim
FRANCE:	Paul Leroy Président Université des Sciences Sociales de Grenoble II
	Thierry Malan Inspecteur de l'administration de l'Education nationale Ministère des Universités
	Jean-Pierre Prineau Secrétaire Général Université Paul Sabatier
IRELAND:	Michael Kelleher Finance Officer and Secretary University College Cork
ITALY:	Alberto Quadrio Curzio Professor of Political Economy Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore - Milano
NETHERLANDS:	R.C.H. Hijmans Senior Staff Member Ministry of Education and Science
	G. Vossers (Chairman) Professor University of Technology, Eindhoven
NORWAY:	Harald Overvaag Director University of Tromsø
	Karl Georg Schjetne Director University of Trondheim

ANNEX 1 (Cont.)

SWEDEN:	Paul Almefelt Director University of Linköping
SWITZERLAND:	Richard Bretscher Directeur adjoint Université de Genève
UNITED KINGDOM:	Derek Birch Deputy Director The Further Education Staff College
	Duncan I. Cameron Director of Administration and Secretary of the University Heriot-Watt University
	Gordon Wheeler Director The Further Education Staff College

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS — ANNEX 2

Institutions are classified by countries and, where appropriate, by sub-systems. The name of each institution is preceded by its abbreviation and followed by the shortened name by which it is referred to in certain tables.

AREA A

DENMARK (DK)

CH	Technical University of Copenhagen (TU Copenhagen)
R	University of Roskilde (Roskilde UC)

NORWAY (N)

O	University of Oslo (Oslo)
TH	University of Trondheim (Trondheim)
TO	University of Tromsø (Tromsø)

SWEDEN (S)

RS	Royal Institute of Technology, Stockholm (RIT Stockholm)
U	University of Uppsala (Uppsala)
LINK	University of Linköping (Linköping)

IRELAND (IR)

TC	Trinity College Dublin (Trin. C. Dublin)
CK	University College Cork (UC Cork)
NHE	The National Institute for Higher Education - Limerick (NIHE Limerick)

UNITED KINGDOM (UK)

Universities

H	Heriot-Watt University (Heriot-Watt)
E	University of Edinburgh (Edinburgh)
LS	University of Leeds (Leeds)
SX	University of Sussex (Sussex)

Polytechnics

LP	Polytechnic of Central London (PC London)
SP	Sheffield Polytechnic (Sheffield CP)

AREA B

AUSTRIA (A)

AW	Hochschule für Angewandte Kunst in Wien (Arts Wien)
TUG	Technische Universität Graz (Graz)
LI	Universität Linz (Linz)
W	Universität Wien (Wien)
VEW	Veterinärmedizinische Universität Wien (Vet. Wien)

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY (D)

B.R	Freie Universität Berlin (Berlin)
AA	Technische Hochschule Aachen (Aachen)
E-N	Universität Erlangen-Nürnberg (Erlangen-Nürn.)
HH	Universität Hamburg (Hamburg)
KA	Universität Karlsruhe (Karlsruhe)
SB	Universität des Saarlandes - Saarbrücken (Saarbrücken)
TRI	Universität Trier (Trier)

THE NETHERLANDS (NL)

LEI	Rijks Universiteit Leiden (Leiden)
TWE	Technische Hogeschool Twente (Twente)
NIJ	Katholieke Universiteit Nijmegen (Nijmegen)
WAG	Landbouw Hogeschool Wageningen (Wageningen)

AREA C

BELGIUM(B)

KUL	Katholieke Universiteit Leuven (Leuven)
UIA	Universitaire Instelling Antwerpen (Antwerpen)
UCL	Université Catholique de Louvain (Louvain-la-Neuve)

FRANCE (F)

Universities

LIL	Université de Lille I (Lille)
GRE	Université de Grenoble II (Grenoble 2)
TOUL	Université de Toulouse III (Toulouse)
DIJ	Université de Dijon (Dijon)
P-X	Paris X - Université Paris-Nanterre (Nanterre)
P-VI	Paris VI - Université Pierre et Marie Curie (Paris VI)

Polytechnic

INPG	Institut National Polytechnique de Grenoble (INP Grenoble)

ITALY (I)

State Universities

VEN	Università di Venezia (Venezia)
PAR	Università di Parma (Parma)
ROM	Università di Roma (Roma)
NAP	Università di Napoli (Napoli)

Free Universities

C-Mi	Università Cattolica del Sacre Cuore di Milano (Cat-Milano)
TRE	Università Trento (Trento)

SWITZERLAND (CH)

Cantonal Universities

BAS	Universität Basel (Basel)
FRI	Université de Fribourg (Fribourg)
GEN	Université de Genève (Genève)

Federal Institute

ETHZ	Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich (ETH Zürich)